

WORKPLACE BULLYING:
FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE A
BYSTANDER'S WILLINGNESS
TO INTERVENE

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ABSTRACT

To date, little empirical work regarding workplace bullying has been done in Canada, thus, a more extensive look at this phenomenon in the Canadian context is needed. One-hundred-and-twenty University of Saskatchewan employees at different levels (e.g., faculty, support staff, administration) were recruited to complete an on-line survey designed to test a number of predictions. The primary goals set forth in the present project were threefold: (1) estimate the prevalence of varying workplace bullying behaviours in a Canadian context; (2) examine connections between workplace environments and prevalence of these aggressive behaviours; and (3) explore whether individuals' willingness to intervene in aggressive actions they witness is tied to features of the workplace environment and other mitigating factors.

In relation to prevalence, employees reported more witnessed bullying, as compared to experienced bullying. Although no gender differences were observed for rates of bullying, participants did report significantly more female than male perpetrators. In accordance with the study's predictions, negative work environments were positively associated with the prevalence of bullying behaviour. However, in general, negative work environments were not tied to bystanders' willingness to intervene in aggressive actions. Other mitigating factors were positively linked to a bystander's willingness to intervene in a bullying incident, including: bullying event is considered serious; someone else steps in to intervene first; bullying is considered a recurring event; bystander likes the victim; bystander dislikes the bully; bystander believes victim did not deserve the bullying behaviour; and victim believes intervening will not take a lot of time and energy. Implications, as well as practical applications of these findings are discussed.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Research concerning workplace bullying has exploded since the early 1990s with early work in Scandinavia subsequently extending to North America. To date, however, little empirical work has been done in Canada and a more extensive look at workplace bullying in the Canadian context is needed. According to Adams (1997), “many employees prefer to believe that bullying is somebody else’s problem, not theirs, but no company or organization is exempt” (p. 177). Sadly, bullying can be a common occurrence, particularly for those work environments that accept or tolerate such behaviour (Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002). Many harmful correlates of workplace bullying have been documented in the literature at both the individual and organizational level. For example, individual effects include elevated sickness and absence from work whereas organizational effects include rapid staff turnover, decreased productivity and possible litigations (Adams, 1997). Because workplace bullying is a relatively new field of study and in at least some instances remains commonplace in organizations, it is indeed worthy of further investigation.

The present research represents an effort to fill the gap in the literature with a preliminary look at the similarities and differences between existing characterizations (e.g., prevalence rates) of workplace bullying and what transpires within a Canadian context. Moving beyond a description of the phenomenon, however, the research was designed to explore whether there are certain contexts (e.g., work environments) that promote versus inhibit workplace bullying and whether there are certain factors associated with a willingness on the part of coworkers to intervene when a colleague is bullied.

The present review begins with a general description of the phenomenon (e.g., characteristics of workplace bullying) in an effort to provide the reader with an understanding of the extent of the problem. Consideration is then given to delineating some of the individual characteristics associated with those who perpetrate, and those who are victimized by, workplace bullying. Moving beyond the individual, however, the review of existing research also includes attention to the context or environment in which workplace bullying can take place with a specific emphasis on the role of social norms. Finally, it is argued that bystanders or witnesses to workplace bullying play a critical role

in understanding the larger picture of why bullying behaviours are sustained within certain contexts. Although little research has examined bystanders (witnesses) to workplace bullying, the remainder of the introduction explores mitigating factors that may be tied to a willingness to intervene in bullying situations.

1.1 Description of the Phenomenon

The concept of bullying at work has become a pressing issue within the last 20 years for the working population, as well as the academic community. Interest in the topic originated in Scandinavia. In the 1970s, Heinz Leymann examined direct and indirect forms of conflict in the workplace. Through his research in various organizations, Leymann encountered the phenomenon of mobbing and wrote the first Swedish book on the subject in 1986, entitled – *Mobbing – Psychological Violence at Work*. The term ‘mobbing’ was borrowed from the English word ‘mob’, which was originally used to describe animal aggression and herd behaviour (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003).

Varying concepts have been used by different European countries, such as ‘mobbing’ (Leymann, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996), ‘harassment’ (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994), ‘bullying’ (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Rayner, 1997; Vartia, 1996), ‘victimisation’ (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), and ‘psychological terror’ (Leymann, 1990). However, as Einarsen et al. (2003) note, all of the concepts refer to the same phenomenon. On an international basis, the term ‘mobbing’ has been used in many European countries, while the term ‘bullying’ has become the preferred term in English-speaking countries (e.g., Canada, United States; Einarsen et al., 2003).

1.1.1 Prevalence of Workplace Bullying

A review of European research reveals that between one and four percent of employees report serious workplace bullying (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Using less stringent criteria for bullying, including studies that evaluate the frequency of negative social acts at work, scholars suggest that in many organizations, up to 20 percent or more of employees occasionally experience negative social behaviour (Zapf et al., 2003). Hoel and Cooper (2000) conducted the first nationwide survey of workplace bullying in Britain, in which data were collected across a number of occupations and industrial sectors and reported that approximately 11 percent of participants had been bullied in the last six months. These frequencies are cause for concern, especially given

the suggestion that existing prevalence rates are likely underestimates, resulting from fear of retribution and/or employees not wanting to admit the victim role (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). As mentioned previously, little research has been done in Canada regarding workplace bullying, including estimating prevalence rates. Thus, one goal of the proposed research was to examine self-reports of the prevalence of workplace bullying in a Canadian sample in order to compare these estimates with rates found in Europe and elsewhere.

Fluctuations in prevalence rates. Previous research indicates some discrepancies in the reported prevalence of workplace bullying. For example, Hoel and Cooper (2000) reported that 11 percent of British employees had experienced workplace bullying in the last six months whereas findings from Jennifer, Cowie and Ananiadou (2003) seem to indicate a much higher frequency of bullying experiences with 21 percent of employees reporting they had faced bullying in the workplace in the last six months. Several reasons have been offered to explain why there is the fluctuation in frequencies of workplace bullying across studies and across nations. One reason includes differences in the culture or quality of the work environment (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004). For example, bullying seems to be primarily a problem among white-collar workers, and less a problem among blue-collar workers (Zapf et al., 2003). It has been argued that differences in bullying frequencies among blue- and white-collar workers can be explained by differing levels of personal involvement. Zapf et al. (2003) suggest white-collar jobs involve higher levels of personal involvement, compared to blue-collar jobs, and the higher the level of personal involvement, the more personal information is accessible and the more opportunities for being bullied exist. Fluctuations may also be a function of national differences in prevalence levels (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy & Alberts, 2007; Rayner et al., 2002). For example, Rayner et al. (2002) state “British society is hierarchical, and perhaps societal norms to follow the boss’s style are more accepted in the UK than in more egalitarian societies such as that of Scandinavia” (p. 117). When bullies are identified in the workplace, they are often found to be in management positions (Rayner et al., 2002). If employees in Britain are more likely to model managers’ behaviour, compared to employees in Scandinavian countries, differences in prevalence rates may be due to real national differences.

To an even larger extent, differences in prevalence rates may be attributed to how bullying is measured (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; McKay, Huberman & Fratzi, 2008). Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) found that measuring bullying in terms of operational criteria (i.e., daily/weekly exposure to negative acts for a period of 6 months) yielded higher frequencies, compared to subjective criteria (i.e., asking employees whether they have felt subjected to bullying within the previous six months). In this latter case, no definition of bullying is provided and, as such, participants respond in a subjective manner (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004). Thus, one must be aware that prevalence rates regarding workplace bullying may be affected by various factors including differences in work environment, national differences, and/or methodological artifacts. Although the literature yields differences in prevalence rates regarding workplace bullying, almost all organizations are impacted in some way by workplace bullying.

1.1.2 Harmful Effects of Workplace Bullying

Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf and Cooper (2003) contend that experiencing workplace bullying is more destructive to employees than all other kinds of work-related stress combined. Not only do the targets of workplace bullying suffer, but also, bystanders who witness various negative social acts within the workplace. Indeed, Vartia (2001) found that both the victims and observers of workplace bullying report more general stress and mental stress reactions than do respondents from workplaces with no bullying. In addition, targets of workplace bullying expressed feelings of low self-confidence more often than those who had not been subjected to bullying. Bullying is considered a problem for the entire work unit affecting the victims of and bystanders to workplace bullying (Vartia, 2001), as well as the larger organizational unit (Adams, 1997). In addition to affecting those internal to the organization, bullying may also impact those external to the workplace, including friends and family (Lewis & Orford, 2005).

Individual effects of workplace bullying. Psychological symptoms of workplace bullying include post-traumatic stress disorder (Rayner et al., 2002; Vartia, 2001), general anxiety disorder (Vartia, 2001), generalized stress, anxiety, depression, and difficulty concentrating (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2006). Physical symptoms include high sickness rates (Adams, 1997), disturbed sleep, lethargy, stomach disorders, headaches, body aches, exhaustion, and a rapid heart rate (Djurkovic et al., 2006). In a

study by Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen and Hellesoy (1996) with Norwegian blue- and white-collar workers, bullying alone accounted for 13% of the variance in psychological complaints, 6% of the variance in musculoskeletal problems, and 8% of the variance in psychosomatic health complaints (as cited in Vartia, 2001). Neidhammer, David and Degioanni (2006) found that bullying was a risk factor for depressive symptoms for both men and women, and the more common the exposure, the higher the risk for depressive symptoms. At the extreme, some victims of bullying have committed suicide (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy & Alberts, 2007). In a Norwegian study cited by Rayner et al. (2002), it was found that approximately 40% of the most frequently bullied victims confessed to having considered suicide at some stage.

Organizational effects of workplace bullying. Less information is available on the organizational effects of workplace bullying. However, there is some evidence to suggest that workplace bullying is correlated with reduced productivity (Adams, 1997; Heames, Harvey, & Treadway, 2006), low morale, potential litigations, poor corporate image, and rapid staff turnover (Adams, 1997). UNISON is the largest trade union in the United Kingdom, with over 1.3 million members. The UNISON surveys found that of those previously bullied, approximately one quarter left their job. Furthermore, approximately 20% of those who witnessed bullying acts chose to terminate their own employment (Rayner et al., 2002). Callan and Hartel (2003) examined the relation between bullying and employees' counterproductive behaviours. These authors found that higher levels of bullying were predictive of workplace counterproductive behaviours, such as deliberately wasting company material and supplies, intentionally doing one's work erroneously and deliberately damaging an important piece of property belonging to the employer. Additional organizational effects found in the literature include decreases in creativity, innovation, efficiency, motivation, and satisfaction (Rayner et al., 2002).

The ripple effect. Not only does workplace bullying affect individuals within the organization and the organization itself, but it also can affect those external to the workplace (e.g., family and/or friends). Lewis and Orford (2005) refer to this as the ripple effect, where workplace bullying impacts negatively on relationships external to the workplace over time. The negative impact of bullying, in turn, reduces support and increases distress for both the victims and those external to the workplace. In their

discussion of in-depth interviews with ten British female professionals who were the targets of workplace bullying, Lewis and Orford (2005) found that workplace bullying impacted upon many of the women's children, siblings, friends and/or significant other. Thus, workplace bullying not only affects the victims and bystanders, but also the larger organizational unit as well as those external to the workplace.

1.1.3 Defining Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying is a relatively new field of study, and as such, it is characterized by a lack of clear definition. Clear and agreed upon definitions of bullying remain elusive even in fields where bullying has received greater attention (e.g., school-aged investigations of bullying and victimization; Vaillancourt et al., 2007). Accordingly, there is a need for a better understanding of how employees define and experience workplace bullying. Although the concept of bullying is used both to depict the destructive behaviour of particular perpetrators (e.g., aggression towards others), as well as the victimization process of certain targets (e.g., victim's experiences with bullying), the latter has been the main focus of research in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2003). Most literature describes workplace bullying as an occurrence, which is repetitive in nature, involving an imbalance of power between the bully and victim (Cowie et al., 2002) that is typically intentional (Cowie et al., 2002; Keashly & Jagatic, 2003). This definition of workplace bullying is quite similar to that of childhood and early adolescent bullying, which also have criteria of repetition, power imbalance and intentionality (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

Repetition. While some degree of repetition is commonly considered to characterize bullying, there is no agreement on the level of frequency and duration needed to meet this definitional criterion. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) label behaviours that have taken place within the last 6 months (i.e., 'now and then' or 'weekly') to be bullying; whereas, Leyman (1990) suggests a more stringent criterion of approximately one incident per week over a period of at least 6 months (as cited in Einarsen et al, 2003). Although there is no agreement regarding what frequency and duration constitutes workplace bullying, duration of the bullying appears to be closely associated with the frequency (Einarsen et al., 2003). Those who are bullied frequently report a longer duration of their experience, compared to those who are bullied less frequently.

Imbalance of power. With regard to an imbalance of power, the victim of workplace bullying must feel inferior to the perpetrator in some manner. Imbalances in power often reflect formal power structures within the organizational environment (e.g., supervisors/managers bully a subordinate; Einarsen et al., 2003). However, the source of power may also be informal (e.g., based on knowledge and experience or access to support from powerful persons; Einarsen et al., 2003). By feeling inferior, the victim must perceive him or herself defenseless against the perpetrator. Thus, workplace bullying is not limited to a set of objectively predefined harmful acts, but also includes a victim's subjective experience (Cowie et al., 2002).

The subjective-objective debate. Rayner et al. (2002) suggest researchers must not assume that people's beliefs regarding bullying are fixed. People may change their views about bullying for various reasons. What one person may interpret as bullying behaviour, another person may not. Einarsen et al. (2003) suggest that in many cases bullying behaviours are subtle and discrete in nature and are sometimes revealed in private. Einarsen et al. (2003) go on to suggest that "bullying is, therefore, often a subjective process or social reconstruction, and difficult to prove. Uninformed bystanders could interpret the respective behaviours completely differently" (p. 13).

Not only may bystanders misinterpret bullying behaviours, but victims may also have faulty recollections or reports across time. It is important to note, however, that the research that has been done on the accuracy or stability of participants' recollections of bullying across time has found memories to be quite stable over a 12-14 month period (Cowie et al., 2002). Because researchers examining workplace bullying are dealing with a partially subjective concept, we must be cautious about the interpretation of findings (i.e., generalizing workplace bullying experiences to other work environments or comparing workplace bullying experiences).

Intentionality. The third criterion for defining workplace bullying is intentionality. Unlike repetition and power imbalance, intentionality is much more difficult to verify when examining workplace bullying. The function of intent is connected both to whether the perceived negative act was purposeful at the beginning and to the likely harmful outcome(s) of the behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2003). An additional issue to consider is the difference between instrumental aggression (i.e., bullying to achieve a particular goal or

objective) and affective aggression (i.e., bullying as a result of heightened emotion). While the bullying behaviour may be intentional, the perpetrator may have no intention to cause harm to a particular person. Einarsen et al. (2003) conclude “whereas intent may be a controversial feature of bullying definitions, there is little doubt that perception of intent is important as to whether an individual decides to label their experience as bullying or not” (p. 13). Indeed, in a study by Liefvooghe (2000), focus groups conducted in numerous industries revealed that intention of the bully to harass his or her victim is a frequent factor people consider when discussing bullying (as cited in Rayner et al., 2002).

In addition to the criteria of repetition, power imbalance and intentionality, Saunders, Huynh and Goodman-Delahunty (2007) highlight the negative effect of the bullying behaviour on the target as an essential criterion. Saunders and colleagues state:

Notwithstanding the types of behaviour that occur and the degree of persistence of the behaviour, researchers and practitioners generally agree that a negative workplace experience can only be defined as bullying if the target of the behaviour experiences some form of psychological, emotional or physical harm. (p. 342)

Although common criteria exist among researchers in relation to defining workplace bullying, a clear and agreed upon definition of workplace bullying remains elusive; and because of this, researchers and practitioners have called for a uniform definition of workplace bullying (Saunders et al., 2007).

Jones (2006) suggests that those who wish to describe the difference between workplace bullying and sexual harassment, particularly in the mainstream bullying literature, will face a high degree of terminological and conceptual uncertainty. Some suggest that bullying is part of all harassment, discrimination, abuse, prejudice and violence and, as such, sexual harassment in the workplace may be considered one form of workplace bullying (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Jones, 2006). Bjorkqvist suggests “sexual harassment is a specific form of work harassment [bullying], utilizing sexuality as a means of oppression” (p. 174). Others have suggested there are clear boundaries between bullying and sexual harassment. For those who support the latter view, sexual harassment is specifically linked to sex; whereas in the case of workplace bullying, sex or gender is not a principle component of research (Jones, 2006). Others still have argued that the term ‘sexual harassment’ should be replaced by the term ‘gender harassment’. Gender

harassment may be defined as a punitive practice that labels, imposes and regulates the characteristics of both harasser and victim according to a system of gender norms that sees women as feminine objects and men as masculine subjects (Jones, 2006).

Furthermore, Jones (2006) asserts that gender harassment appears to be an element of both sexual harassment and gendered-workplace bullying. Lee (2001) describes gendered-workplace bullying as inappropriate remarks, comments, and suggestions regarding a person's gender. Jones asserts there has been great resistance in terms of incorporating gendered bullying into the concept of sexual harassment. Although it was beyond the scope of this study to compare experiences of bullying and sexual harassment, it is important to be aware of this debate when examining workplace bullying.

1.1.4 Types of Workplace Bullying

In addition to the criteria that have been used to define bullying (i.e., repetition, power imbalance, subjective, intentionality), workplace bullying varies in terms of the form it can take. According to Rayner and Hoel (1997), bullying behaviours can be grouped into the following categories: *threat to professional status* (e.g., belittling opinion, public professional humiliation, accusations regarding lack of effort); *threat to personal standing* (e.g., name-calling, insults, intimidation, devaluing with reference to age); *isolation* (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, withholding information); *overwork* (e.g., undue pressure, impossible deadlines, unnecessary disruptions); and *destabilization* (e.g., failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks, removal of responsibility, repeated reminders of blunders, setting up to fail). The bullying behaviours outlined above are covert forms of workplace aggression (i.e., subtle and less obvious bullying behaviours). Indeed, Saunders et al. (2007) assert that employees experience covert forms of workplace aggression much more frequently than more overt forms of bullying behaviour (e.g., pushing, shouting, etc.).

Perhaps not surprisingly, as a newer field of study, much attention has been focused on understanding the nature of bullying behaviours, estimating prevalence, and attempting to assess consequences. In addition, however, researchers have endeavoured to “profile” the characteristics of those who perpetrate bullying behaviours, as well as those who are targets of these behaviours in an effort to better understand individual differences.

1.1.5 Victim and Bully Characteristics

There are a host of personal characteristics associated with those who are victims of workplace bullying as well as those who perpetrate workplace bullying. Given the correlational nature of this research, it is not possible to determine whether these characteristics or personality traits predispose individuals to certain experiences (e.g., being victimized), whether these characteristics are in fact a consequence of bullying experiences or whether both characteristics and experiences influence each other in a reciprocal manner. Nevertheless, knowledge of these personal characteristics provides useful descriptive information.

Characteristics of victims. Hoel and Cooper (2001) have suggested that victims display high anxiety traits, neurotic behaviour and low self-esteem. Researchers have also found victims of workplace bullying to be conscientious, literal-minded, paranoid, rigid, compulsive, less independent, less extroverted and more unstable, compared to non-victims (Randall, 2001). According to Hoel and Cooper (2001), ambiguous situations, where the source of frustration is unclear, often lead to ‘scapegoating’, which is defined as “projecting our frustration on to people who are considered weak or unlikely to retaliate” (p. 10). Common behaviours that may enhance the likelihood of attaining the status of the scapegoat include, being too honest, displaying a lack of willingness to negotiate and anachronistic behaviour (i.e., behaviour that does not keep up with development within the group and organization).

Characteristics of bullies. Less research has been conducted to examine the personalities or personal characteristics of perpetrators of workplace bullying. Bullies have been described as generally aggressive, self-confident and impulsive (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). Bullies have also been referred to as ‘the abrasive personality’, ‘the authoritarian personality’ and ‘the petty tyrant’ (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). Lewis (2006) examined bullying within nursing and found that the principle reason that bullies maintain their power is via their skill to impose their definition of the situation within any discussion process. Lewis (2006) describes bullies as being typically manipulative, ‘organizationally astute’ in their familiarity of regulations and loopholes, and likely to have been in a similar position before (i.e., in terms of having been the bully previously), which all contribute to their authority over others.

Bullies are often in managerial positions (Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Randall, 2000; Zapf et al., 2003); however, if subordinates do bully managers they often do it in groups or along with other managers or supervisors (Zapf et al., 2003). Hoel and Cooper (2000) conducted the first nationwide survey of workplace bullying across a number of occupations and sectors in Britain. The authors found that the experience of bullying was positively correlated with scores on items related to 'negative' management styles (i.e., autocratic, divisive, laissez-faire, non-contingent punishment). Additional negative management styles, including abuse of power and poor communication, have been found to be correlated with perpetrating workplace bullying (Lewis & Orford, 2005).

1.1.6 Gender Differences Regarding Workplace Bullying

Although an extensive amount of research has examined sexual harassment within the workplace, little research has focused on gender issues related to workplace bullying (Lewis & Orford, 2005; Zapf et al., 2003). Lewis and Orford (2005) argue that there are meaningful gender differences in the frequency and forms of workplace bullying as well as a differential impact of bullying on men and women.

One finding has been that women more often report workplace bullying, compared to men (Lewis & Orford, 2005). Indeed, Zapf et al. (2003) assert that in most samples, the victims of workplace bullying are approximately one-third men and two-thirds women. In a study conducted by Bjorkqvist et al. (1994), participants recorded how often they felt they had experienced 24 types of demeaning and oppressing behaviour by their colleagues during the last six months. The authors found that women claimed to have experienced work harassment significantly more often than men (55% versus 30% respectively). However, there is other evidence to suggest that men and women are bullied at approximately the same rate (Rayner et al., 2002).

When we consider the role of the perpetrator, men appear to be over-represented among the bullies in most studies as compared to women, a finding that parallels research examining school bullying (Zapf et al., 2003). With regard to acts of aggression in the workplace, direct aggression (e.g., shouting, humiliating somebody) has been observed to be more typical among male bullies whereas indirect aggression (e.g., social exclusion, spreading rumours) has been seen to be more typical of female bullies (Zapf et al. 2003).

Evidence also exists to suggest that the gender of the perpetrator differs for men and women. Specifically, several studies have found that women are bullied more frequently by other women than by men, with men bullied more frequently by other men (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Zapf et al. (2003) assert that “whereas women are sometimes exclusively bullied by men, it is very seldom that men are exclusively bullied by women” (p. 113). Zapf and colleagues attribute this finding to the notion that men often hold positions of greater power in an organization (as compared to women), which may contribute to women’s increased risk for becoming a victim of bullying, considering bullying is most often a top-down process (Adams, 1997; Zapf et al., 2003). However, when interpreting any empirical results, it is always important to consider the sample within a particular group context (e.g., ratio of males to females in a particular work environment).

Some have suggested that there is a relationship between the victim role and female socialization, whereby the female socialization process teaches women to be less confident, less forceful and more agreeable than men (Zapf et al., 2003). As a consequence, women are less likely to defend themselves when bullied. Although scholars have argued theoretically for the influence of a particular female socialization process on workplace bullying, there is little empirical evidence to support this contention (Zapf et al., 2003).

Kaukiainen et al. (2001) used social-role theory as a way to understand gender differences in workplace bullying experiences suggesting that “sex differences in aggression [which] can be at least partly accounted for on the basis of situational differences in the prominence of gender-role expectations” (p. 361). For example, in predominantly male work environments, expressions of aggression may be more commonplace (acceptable), as compared to workplaces composed mainly of female employees (i.e., male employees use aggression as a normal means to communicate). Kaukiainen et al. (2001) sought to examine the occurrence of different types of aggression (i.e., direct-overt, indirect manipulative, covert insinuating, rational-appearing) in various workplaces (predominantly male, predominantly female, both male and female employees in equal or near equal frequencies). Findings revealed that the number of female and male coworkers was not related to the frequency of women’s

aggression, nor type of aggression. In contrast, male aggression occurred more in the presence of other males and all four types of aggression were common.

Further, Kaukiainen and colleagues (2001) found that among men, all forms of experienced aggression were negatively associated with various aspects of well-being. For example, men who reported having experienced a higher frequency of rational-appearing aggression (i.e., inquiring about the other person's work capabilities) also reported more physical symptoms, affective cognitive problems and psychosocial problems. These symptoms/problems were also positively correlated with the other three types of workplace bullying (direct-overt, indirect manipulative, covert insinuated). In contrast, the correlations between experiences of workplace aggression and well-being for females were low and in most cases statistically non-significant.

Other studies, particularly those conducted outside the UK, have suggested that women may be more negatively affected than men by bullying (Rayner et al., 2002). Lewis and Orford (2005) report that women report more significant negative psychological effects as a result of workplace bullying as compared to men. Other evidence still suggests men and women are equally affected by workplace bullying (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Rayner et al. (2002) contend that differential effects of workplace bullying on men and women may have more to do with women being more consistent reporters of workplace bullying problems (e.g., factors associated with memory, willingness to report) than actual differences in workplace effects. Based on previous research, there is some reason to believe female employees experience higher frequencies of bullying behaviour, compared to male employees. Thus, in the present study it was predicted that female participants would report higher frequencies of bullying, compared to male participants. In addition, although no specific predictions were made, the present study sought to examine gender differences with respect to type of bullying and the sex of the perpetrator.

Alongside the pursuit of profiling those who are victimized and those who perpetrate bullying behaviour in the workplace, scholars have focused attention on examining workplace contexts and/or organizational environments that make bullying a more or less common phenomenon. In the first instance, a consideration of context or environment involves a look at different types of workplaces as well as important

conditions within workplaces that serve as antecedents to bullying. At a broader level, however, the context perspective on workplace bullying must involve a careful examination of social norms that govern behaviour.

1.1.7 Types of Work Most Susceptible to Bullying

According to Hoel and Cooper's (2000) nationwide survey of workplace bullying in Britain, employees within the prison service, post and telecommunications, school-teaching and the dance professions were most at risk for experiencing workplace bullying. Employees working within the brewing industry, pharmaceutical industry and the IT industry reported the lowest levels of workplace bullying. Buksan (2004) explored workplace bullying in France and concluded that unlike the private sector, where provisions have been made to protect employees from workplace bullying, the public sector includes laws that are much less protective. For example, one recent provision made to the private sector in France is that no discriminatory measure (direct or indirect) is to be used against an employee confirming, documenting or relating bullying behaviour. In contrast, no such measure is found in public sector laws (Buksan, 2004). High levels of workplace bullying within the public sector have also been found in Britain (Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Lewis & Orford, 2005) and Europe in general. According to Zapf et al. (2003) high levels of bullying have been reported for the social and health sectors as well as public administration and education sectors, which all belong to the public sector. Zapf et al. suggest that in private sectors (e.g., small family businesses) it may be easier to leave the job when bullying begins to occur, compared to employees working in the public sector, where quitting the job involves giving up a high degree of job security. Another possible reason, which was mentioned previously, for varying levels of bullying between the two sectors, is that many public sector jobs involve a high level of personal involvement. More personal information available allows more opportunity to attack the person to which the information belongs (Zapf et al., 2003).

Although bullying is most prominent in the public sector it is by no means exclusive to the public sector. Ferris (2004) describes three organizational representative responses to accusations of bullying, including (1) the behaviour is acceptable, (2) the behaviour is inappropriately equally attributed to both parties as a personality conflict, and (3) the behaviour is harmful and inappropriate. Ferris asserts those organizational

representatives who deem bullying behaviour as acceptable are often found in mid-sized, private, non-profit, and competitive organizations that are frequently experiencing structural changes. Organizational representatives who deem bullying behaviour as a personality conflict are often from larger organizations (e.g., government organization, educational organization). Finally, those organizational representatives who believe bullying behaviour is unacceptable often come from medium-sized, private, for-profit organizations in competitive industries in which there is an appreciation of respect within the workplace and where bullying behaviours are covered within their harassment policies (Ferris, 2004).

Another work environment, which is well known for high rates of bullying, is the restaurant kitchen (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Restaurant kitchens are hot, noisy and stressful environments, which may exacerbate instances of bullying (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). In all, it appears that some workplaces are more susceptible to bullying than others; however, as mentioned repeatedly in the literature, few workplaces are free from bullying. Of interest, then, is the question of why certain workplaces are more highly vulnerable to workplace bullying as compared to others.

1.1.8 Antecedents to Workplace Bullying

Dyadic antecedents. Dyadic antecedents to workplace bullying may be defined as events that occur in the interaction between two principle parties involved in the conflict process (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Rayner et al. (2002) suggest disputes are often caused by a personality clash. If a dispute is not resolved promptly, the situation may escalate to bullying behaviour (Rayner et al., 2002). Rayner et al. (2002) suggest once each party gets further involved, matters often become more personal and as mentioned earlier, the more personal information that is known about someone, the more power that person holds and can wield in an attack against another individual. Rayner et al. (2002) suggest that a lack of social skills, an aggressive personality and low self-esteem all contribute to a dispute having a greater likelihood of escalating to bullying behaviour, rather than being resolved in a rational manner. Thus, the presence of individuals within the workplace who are more inclined to escalate conflicts may contribute to a greater frequency of bullying episodes.

Organizational antecedents. Rayner et al. (2002) describe organizational antecedents to workplace bullying in terms of stress. Too much pressure and strain from within the organization may foster negative behaviour, including bullying. Researchers have suggested that negative behaviour (i.e., bullying) is in fact a coping mechanism used to combat too much pressure and stress. Rayner et al. (2002) discuss stress in terms of situational stress, which may include high job demands, a lack of control over time, and role conflict. Role-conflict involves instances where individuals encounter contradictory expectations (e.g., there is a demand for an increase in productivity as well as an enhancement in quality; Rayner et al., 2002). Other situational stressors, which may foster workplace bullying, include organizations with minimal challenges, little variety, less appealing work, little opportunity for personal development, unsatisfactory work climate, and high dissatisfaction with supervisors (Hoel & Cooper, 2001).

1.2 Social Norms

One broader aspect of the organizational environment includes workplace values and norms, which have been thought to influence how and whether bullying is acknowledged as a problem (Cowie, 2002). Social norms are constructs used to define human behaviour and are described within a social psychological theoretical framework. Cialdini and Trost (1998) define social norms as “rules and standards that are understood by members of a group, and that guide and/or constrain social behavior without the force of law” (p. 152). Social norms materialize out of interactions with others; they may be stated implicitly or explicitly and any permission for deviating from them comes from social networks and not the legal system.

1.2.1 The Origin of Norms

Little attention has been given to the origins of norms (i.e., how social norms surface within social systems). Two different perspectives speak most clearly to the question of origin: the societal-value perspective; and the functional perspective. These perspectives may aid in our understanding of how and why workplace bullying transpires within particular work environments as well as providing a framework within which to examine whether co-workers are willing to intervene when bullying does take place. Indeed, in the present study, theoretical and empirical work in the area of social norms will be used to make predictions about the prevalence of workplace bullying.

The societal-value perspective. The societal-value perspective states that norms are culturally specific and variable, and that the influence of any norm results exclusively from its value to the culture within which it functions (Ciladini & Trost, 1998). This perspective is evident in the fact that some workplace environments endorse bullying, while others do not. For example, male-dominated organizations, which emphasize ‘machismo/masculinity’ or ‘efficiency at all costs’ often tolerate or consider as acceptable aggressive behaviour (Cowie et al., 2002). In contrast, employees in organizations with more formal organizational cultures, where management is perceived as fair, behave more respectfully (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003).

Within the societal-value perspective, Opp (1982) suggests “most norms are performed and rewarded repeatedly, either directly or through vicarious reinforcement from others in the society. As a function of their “reward power”, behaviors become preferred responses in particular situations” (as cited in Ciladini & Trost, 1998). Cowie et al. (2002) state,

bullying may be fruitfully defined as an evolving process with humiliating or punitive behaviours over time becoming an accepted pattern of behaviour with which colleagues and management collude...such a culture would favour those who could survive, and managers and supervisors would be tough towards those who were perceived as weak and dispensable. (p. 495)

Thus, in order to be rewarded, or at a minimum, to avoid punishment, employees within some workplace environments may accept and even embrace the aggressive organizational culture.

Proponents of the societal-value perspective (e.g., Cialdini and Trost, 1998) also describe the importance of the socialization process. The strength of bullying behaviour preferences depends on the extent to which: (1) there are occasions for communication between people in the social group that permit them to transmit the norm to others, (2) the group is an integrated unit, which values uniformed behaviour, and (3) the norm is significant for the group. After specified norms are acknowledged by the group and deviant tendencies are discouraged, norms are most often accepted and internalized by the group members (Ciladini & Trost, 1998). This has also been referred to as the ‘socialization process.’ Hoel and Salin (2003) describe the socialization process by stating that when “new members enter the organization they will gradually adapt to the

shared norms of the organization and their work group” (p. 211). In a study of bullying in the Fire Service, Archer (1999) examined how bullying may become institutionalized and agreed upon as tradition (as cited in Cowie et al., 2002). This particular workplace adopted norms of ‘toughness’ and ‘survival of the fittest’, which was evident in the fact that many victims deemed protesting about bullying to be an act of disloyalty.

The functional perspective. A second perspective used to explain the origins of norms is the functional perspective. This perspective asserts that norms are adaptive in an evolutionary sense and aid in our survival as a species at either an individual level or a group level (Ciladini & Trost, 1998). This perspective may be understood through managerial behaviour within some workplace environments. Rayner et al. (2002) suggest that in recent years, managers have had to hold greater accountability for their work and their employees’ work. Not only does heightened responsibility among managers increase the risk of stress, which may in turn lead to bullying (affective aggression), but also unreasonable demands may lead to instrumental aggression (bullying in order to obtain some goal). For example, some bullies consider workers to be more industrious when subjected to fear of harassment (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003). Thus, in order for managers to handle their responsibilities and satisfy upper management, they may bully their employees, believing that bullying acts will aid in their survival within the organization.

Bullying may also be functional in terms of one co-worker bullying another. In a highly competitive work environment, one co-worker may bully his or her colleague with the intent of making the colleague look bad, so as to make him or herself look good and “get ahead”. As mentioned previously, research has shown that in highly stressful work environments, a co-worker may bully his or her colleague as part of a coping mechanism when there is too much pressure (Rayner et al., 2002). Yet another reason for why a co-worker may bully a colleague is to avoid becoming the victim of bullying behaviour. Hoel and Cooper (2000) assert that colleagues, who fear becoming targeted themselves, may decide to bully others.

For the purposes of the present study, the societal-value and functional perspectives on the origins of norms led to the prediction that more difficult or negative work environments and work environments in which bullying behaviour is perceived to

be rewarded would be associated with greater prevalence of bullying behaviour. Specifically, employees who fear becoming a victim of bullying acts, perceive their work environment to be highly competitive, perceive their work environment to be highly stressful and/or perceive their work environment to reward bullying were expected to report more workplace bullying.

1.2.2 Types of Norms

Not only is it important to understand the origins of norms (how social norms surface within social systems); but also, it is essential to recognize the various types of norms, particularly those pertaining to workplace bullying. As mentioned previously, norms are used to explain human behaviour (e.g., workplace bullying) and have widespread usage (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Thus, social norms may be used to logically explain workplace bullying and provide researchers with a testable model. Furthermore, because social norms have widespread usage, researchers may be able to generalize their findings to a more diverse and extensive number of workplace environments, compared to other social phenomena.

Descriptive norms. Cialdini and Trost (1998) state “as humans, we are motivated to act in ways that are effective in achieving our goals: we want to make accurate decisions” (p. 155). One way in which people attempt to behave effectively is through the examination of descriptive norms. Cialdini and Trost (1998) define descriptive norms as norms which are “derived from what other people *do* in any given situation” (p. 155). Observing others’ behaviours provides information on how to act in a novel or ambiguous situation; furthermore, it offers us consensus information. The greater the number of people who respond to the same situation in the same manner, the more correct we will perceive the behaviour to be, even if it is not true. For example, Latane and Darley (1968) suggested that bystanders to an emergency situation (particularly situations that are ambiguous) will often be influenced by other bystanders.

Descriptive norms are considered a heuristic, such that by following others’ behaviours, time and cognitive effort will be minimized, with a high probability of being effective in terms of the outcome (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Cialdini and Trost (1998) suggest that “we can maximize effectiveness of this tendency to model our behaviors after others if we follow those who are not only similar to us, but successful as well” (p.

155). Thus, bullies who are successful (e.g., receive a promotion for increased productivity) will have their behaviours emulated more so than bullies who are not successful in their actions.

With respect to the developmental literature, research has examined normative and non-normative behaviours in the peer groups of children and adolescents. In these studies, behaviours that were recurrent in a particular group were considered normative in the group, whereas uncommon behaviours were considered non-normative (Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). Henry, Guerra, Huesmann, Tolan, VanAcker, and Eron (2000) assessed descriptive classroom norms by evaluating the average level of aggressive behaviour in a classroom.

Going beyond defining descriptive norms in terms of observation and behaviour, Perkins, Haines and Rice (2005) examined the importance of *perceived* norms in predicting high-risk drinking among college students. Regardless of the individual campus drinking norm (e.g., low, moderate, high), students perceived that the norm was to drink more than was actually being consumed by the majority of their peers. Furthermore, the perceived norm (i.e., how many alcoholic drinks participants *thought* the typical student had the last time he/she socialized) was the most powerful predictor of personal drinking, followed by gender and the actual campus drinking norm. The authors concluded, “Although the actual norm is an important predictor of personal consumption, students’ perception of the norm is a much more powerful predictor of their drinking behavior than the amount actually consumed by most of their school peers” (p. 476).

Following from Perkins and colleagues’ definition of descriptive norms, descriptive norms for bullying in the present study were operationalized as the group mean on items measuring the prevalence of participants’ *perceptions* regarding the occurrence of workplace bullying. In the present study, it was predicted that more negative work environments would be linked to perceptions of a higher rate of bullying among coworkers in the workplace.

Injunctive norms. Over and above describing appropriate or typical behaviour to be emulated by others, social norms have the power to prescribe appropriate behaviours, as well as proscribe inappropriate behaviours. Injunctive norms may be referred to as behaviours that are accompanied by social acceptance or approval by others. Henry et al.,

(2000) describe injunctive norms as what children are *expected* to do in any given situation. Henry and colleagues examined injunctive classroom normative beliefs by assessing classmates' beliefs of acceptability of aggression and found that both indirect and direct effects of injunctive norms were significant predictors of changes in aggression over a period of two years. Salmivalli and Voeten (2004) examined group norms among elementary school children, operationalizing group norms as students' expectations about the social consequences of pro- or anti-bullying behaviours in their classroom (i.e., joining in on bullying, taking sides with the victim). The authors found that group norms could be used in explaining bullying variance at the classroom level, particularly in the upper grades, such that a negative relationship was found between anti-bullying norms and bullying others (i.e., as anti-bullying norms decreased, the prevalence of bullying others increased).

Underlying the concept of norms is the implication that behaving in agreement with group norms results in positive consequences and approval by other group members, whereas deviating from the norms results in negative consequences and disapproval (Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). In the present study, it was predicted that higher prevalence rates in reports of workplace bullying would be associated with the perception that bullying behaviour is considered acceptable in the workplace and typically goes unpunished.

1.3 Widening the Focus to Include Witnesses

To date, much of the research examining workplace bullying has focused on documenting the various environmental features, which seem to promote as compared to inhibit bullying behaviours. The existence and experience of bystanders, or those individuals who *witness* the bullying episode has been virtually ignored. Although a clear delineation and understanding of workplace bullying is an essential first step in research, it can be argued that making positive change within organizations must also involve an acknowledgement of the role of group members. Indeed, Jennifer et al. (2003) argue that "bullying may be regarded as a group phenomenon in which most group members have a defined participant role" (p. 490). Thus, not only are the perpetrators and victims of a bullying instance directly involved in the situation, but so too are those who witness the bullying behaviour. Accordingly, the proposed study was designed to examine

bystanders' experiences with workplace bullying, focusing on their willingness to intervene. Of primary interest here is the question of what makes bystanders more or less willing to intervene when they are aware of bullying taking place in the work setting. Using classic social psychological research, contemporary findings from developmental studies of bullying, and the theoretical framework of social norms, it becomes possible to make predictions about why bystanders intervene in workplace bullying.

1.3.1 Early Research on Bystanders

In the classic social psychology literature, research was undertaken to investigate bystanders and their willingness to intervene in an emergency situation. Darley and Latane (1968) examined bystanders who overheard someone experiencing an epileptic seizure and recorded participants' speed of responding to the situation. As an extension of this work, Latane and Darley (1968) conducted an experiment where a room was slowly filled with smoke while participants completed a questionnaire. Latane and Darley (1968) examined the participant's willingness to report the incident according to the presence or absence of bystanders.

Bystander effect. In their work, Darley and Latane (1968) coined the term "the bystander effect" asserting that in the presence of other bystanders, an individual's willingness to intervene in an emergency situation decreases, along with feelings of personal responsibility. Darley and Latane (1968) found that the likelihood of reporting the emergency was tied to the number of bystanders the subject perceived to be present in an emergency situation. Specifically, in the condition where subjects believed they were alone, 85% reported the emergency; whereas when participants thought there to be four people in the room only 31% of the subjects reported the emergency. Latane and Darley (1968) found similar results in that the Bystander Effect was still observed when participants were in the company of two passive confederates, as opposed to four.

There are three possible explanations for why the Bystander Effect occurs including diffusion of responsibility, ambiguity of the event and social influence. When an individual is the only witness to an emergency situation, he or she will feel personally liable for his or her actions. However, if other bystanders are present to witness the emergency, personal agency is easily masked by dispersion of responsibility. Bandura (1999) states that, "When everyone is responsible, no one really feels responsible" (p.

198). Another explanation for the Bystander Effect focuses on the perception of ambiguity within the event. Bystanders are far less likely to intervene in a situation if they are uncertain as to whether it is serious or not (e.g., an argument in the street may transpire into violence; however, it may merely be a family disagreement; Latane & Darley, 1968). Latane and Darley (1968) examined how long it took bystanders to report that their room was filling with smoke. They found that subjects who did not report the smoke were uncertain as to what it was, but consistently perceived the smoke not to be as serious as a fire. Using a sample of early adolescents and a series of hypothetical vignettes, Haffner, McDougall and Vaillancourt (2007) observed that participants reported being more likely to intervene in bullying situations (physical, verbal, social) when they thought the victim was being hurt badly (serious situation) as compared to situations in which they were told the victim was not being hurt badly.

In addition, bystanders to an emergency situation will often be influenced by other bystanders. If bystanders witness someone else stepping in to intervene in the emergency situation, they also may be more willing to intervene. However, if it appears as though the group of bystanders regards the event as non-serious, a person may fear looking silly if he or she were to step in and do something (Darley & Latane, 1968; Latane & Darley, 1968).

Following from Haffner et al. (2007) the present study utilized hypothetical scenarios to examine factors that might be associated with bystanders' willingness to intervene in the workplace. It was expected that participants within the present study would be less likely to intervene in the presence of others as compared to when they are alone. In addition, it was predicted that bullying events considered to be serious in nature (including the victim being hurt badly) would be tied to greater intention to intervene as compared to those events thought to be less significant. Consistent with existing adult literature it was predicted that participants would be more likely to intervene if someone else steps in to intervene first.

1.3.2 Bystanders in Childhood, Early Adolescents and Adulthood

Moving beyond the number of witnesses to a bullying event, seriousness of the event and the issue of whether someone else steps in first to do something, there is evidence to suggest that an individual's willingness to intervene in a bullying situation

may vary as a function of other mitigating factors. What follows below is a description of relevant findings taken from previous research with either children and adolescents or adults. Although certainly, the world of children and adolescents is markedly different from the workplace environment, earlier research involving children and adolescents helps to generate hypotheses around people's willingness to intervene (or not) when faced with a bullying situation. Whenever possible, previous findings are used to help generate predictions about the likelihood of bystander intervention in workplace bullying.

Perceived frequency of situation. By definition, aggressive behaviour is considered bullying if it is repeated over time (Camodeca & Goossens, 2005). In the childhood literature, Pepler, Craig and O'Connell (1999) assert that bystanders may be more likely to intervene in a bullying situation if they become distressed by witnessing repetitive victimization towards the same individual over time. As such, bystanders may be more willing to intervene in a bullying instance if they believe the bullying happens repeatedly and it would most likely happen again. Indeed, Haffner et al. (2007) found that early adolescents were more willing to intervene when they thought the bullying event happened repeatedly. Accordingly, it was predicted that participants would be more likely to intervene if they perceived the bullying as a recurring or persistent event as compared to those instances perceived to be a 'one-time' occurrence.

Feelings towards the bully and/or victim. Pepler et al. (1999) assert that predictions of willingness to intervene in a bullying situation are dependent on whether a bystander dislikes, or on the contrary, feels empathy towards a victim of a bullying instance. If a bystander dislikes the victim they will be unlikely to intervene (Pepler et al., 1999). Haffner et al. (2007) found that early adolescents reported greater willingness to intervene when they liked the victim (as compared to disliking the bully), but this was only true for girls. Within the adult literature, Gaernter (1975) suggests that attitudes towards the victim may influence helping behaviour by affecting the degree to which the bystander believes the victim needs help. Oh and Hazler (2009) examined a sample of college students who witnessed bullying during middle or high school. Findings showed that bystanders (i.e., participants) who were friends with the bully were more likely to assist or reinforce the bully. In contrast, bystanders (i.e., participants) who were friends with the victim were more likely to avoid becoming involved or defend the victim in

some manner. In the present investigation it was predicted that liking the victim or disliking the bully would be associated with a greater likelihood of intervening. In contrast, disliking the victim or liking the bully was predicted to be linked to decreased willingness to intervene.

Fear of retribution. Another factor which has been thought to affect a bystander's willingness to intervene in a bullying situation is probable revenge on the part of the bully towards the individual who comes to the aid of the victim (Newman & Murray, 2005; Rayner et al., 2002). Adults may not intervene in a bullying situation because they fear that they may be victimized or harmed in some way within the workplace as a consequence of trying to help out a co-worker. As these fears develop, feedback will be supplied to both the bully and the victim, which will serve to perpetuate the situation (Pepler et al., 1999). Haffner et al. (2007) found that students were less likely to intervene when there was a fear of retribution from the bully as compared to their general inclination to step in and do something. Accordingly, it was expected in the present study that being fearful of retribution would be connected to decreased willingness to intervene in workplace bullying.

Status of bully. With respect to the adolescent literature, past research has examined status of the bully (in terms of power and popularity) and willingness to intervene in a bullying situation. Vaillancourt, Hymel and McDougall (2003) found that powerful bullies were perceived by peers to be more popular and better liked. Haffner et al. (2007) found that students were less willing to intervene in a physical or verbal bullying situation when the bully was perceived to be high in social status. As such, it was predicted that a bully high in perceived status (i.e., bully is well-liked and popular) would be tied to less willingness to intervene in a bullying situation.

Attributions. Underlying all attribution theories is the “attempt to describe the psychological operations that lead people to embrace situational or dispositional interpretations of other people's behavior” (p. 103; Gilbert, 1995). A situational attribution is made when interpreting someone's behaviour based on the situation that a person is in. A dispositional attribution is made when interpreting someone's behaviour based on the person's unique predispositions to act (Gilbert, 1995). Weiner's (1980) attributional model of helping behaviour suggests that if a person's need is attributed to a

controllable cause, helping behaviour is inhibited. On the contrary, if a person's need is attributed to an uncontrollable cause, the probability of helping behaviour increases. As such, it was predicted that bystanders would be less likely to intervene when they believe the victim acted in such a manner to bring upon the bullying behaviour, as compared to when the bystander believes the victim did not deserve to be bullied.

Difficulty of intervention. In addition, of interest was whether perceived difficulty of intervention is associated with willingness to intervene in a bullying situation. Surprisingly, Haffner et al. (2007) found that for social bullying scenarios, students who perceived greater difficulty in intervening also reported a greater willingness to intervene. Despite there being no specific predictions in the present study, it was important to examine whether perceived difficulty of intervention was tied to willingness to intervene.

Social norms. As mentioned previously, social norms provide a context within which to examine whether co-workers are more or less willing to intervene when bullying does take place. To begin, work environments characterized by pro-bullying descriptive norms likely go hand in hand with lower levels of willingness to intervene in instances of bullying. In accordance with the societal-value perspective outlined above, and the definition of injunctive norms (i.e., what people are expected to do in a given situation), it was predicted that employees who perceive their work environment to reward (as opposed to punish) bullying behaviour would be less likely to intervene in a bullying situation. Following from the functional perspective of social norms outlined above it was predicted that perceptions of the work environment as highly competitive or highly stressful would be associated with less willingness to intervene in a bullying situation. Lastly, it was predicted that a greater fear (in general) of being victimized within the workplace would be tied to less willingness to intervene in a bullying situation.

Bullying in the workplace is a real and potentially widespread problem that deserves further empirical attention. The primary goals set forth in the current study were threefold: (1) estimate the prevalence of workplace bullying behaviours in a Canadian context, (2) examine the connections between workplace environments (e.g., stress, competition) and the prevalence of bullying behaviour that is either experienced or witnessed, and (3) explore whether an individual's willingness to intervene in bullying is tied to features of the workplace environment and other mitigating factors. The present

study was a wide-scale on-line survey designed to test predictions set out in the present review regarding prevalence (e.g., gender differences), context (e.g., workplace norms), and willingness to intervene (e.g., factors that influence a bystander's willingness to intervene in a workplace bullying situation).

2. METHOD

Before implementing the survey (described below), semi-structured interviews were conducted with three informants to examine whether the subjective experiences of employees, including how employees define workplace bullying, corresponded with the existing literature. Informants were chosen based on their knowledge and/or experience with workplace bullying (e.g., staff members from the Harassment Office). Specifically, the goal of the semi-structured interviews was to evaluate whether the measures of workplace bullying selected for the survey would be appropriate for the present context. In addition, data from the interviews were used to develop specific bullying scenarios for the survey, which were intended to examine willingness to intervene in bullying instances. Based on the information obtained in the interviews, it was apparent that the proposed measures of workplace bullying would be appropriate within the present context. In addition, information collected from informants was used to develop four bullying scenarios for the main study. See Appendix A for the semi-structured interview schedule.

2.1 Participants

Participants for the on-line survey were recruited from a university sample of employees working in different capacities across campus (i.e., labour and services, faculty, administration, etc.). All employees who wished to participate in the current research study were allowed to complete the survey. Participants were recruited through on-line postings located on the university's website. The on-line postings invited employees to participate in a research study examining aggression and manipulation in the work environment.

One-hundred-and-twenty participants completed the on-line survey. The sample consisted of 36 males and 83 females.¹ The mean age of participants was 35 years. Participants' age ranged from 18 – 64 years. The majority of participants were European-Canadian (81%). The nature of participants' employment was grouped into three broad categories: (1) labour/services; (2) teaching/research/scientist/clinical professional; and (3) administrative/managerial. Twenty-three percent of participants identified the nature of their employment as labour and/or services. Thirty-four percent of participants fell

¹ Information regarding sex was unavailable for one participant in the current study.

under the category of teaching/research/scientist and/or clinical professional and 30% of participants fell under the category of administrative and/or managerial. In addition, 16 participants (13%) fell under more than one category. These participants checked off more than one employment option, which resultantly fell into distinct employment categories; as such, there was no way to determine which overall category of employment these participants belonged to. Of these 16 participants, nine fell under the second and third category of employment (i.e., teaching/research/scientist/clinical professional and administrative/managerial respectively), four participants fell under the first (i.e., labour/services) and second category, and three participants fell under the first and third category.

2.2 Measures

2.2.1 Demographics. Demographic information thought to be pertinent to aggression and manipulation in the workplace was collected in the present study. Information was collected on participants' gender, age and ethnic heritage. Participants were also asked to provide information regarding the broad nature of their employment but were not asked to identify their position in an explicit fashion, so as to protect anonymity (see Appendix B).

2.2.2 Bullying experiences. Bullying experiences were assessed using the Work Harassment Scale (WHS) originally developed by Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back in 1992. Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Lagerspetz (1994) reported a factor analysis of the WHS leading to the elaboration of two subscales. The resulting scale (i.e., items from both subscales), which was used in the current study, consists of 12 items. The two subscales include 'rational-appearing aggression' and 'social manipulation'. Bjorkqvist and colleagues found both subscales to be reliable (rational-appearing aggression subscale: Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.70$; social manipulation subscale: Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.82$). Both subscales reflect covert aggression, in which the perpetrator attempts to mask his/her aggressive intention, in order to avoid retribution and/or social disapproval. The rational-appearing aggression scale consists of five items: (1) reduced opportunity to express oneself; (2) being interrupted; (3) having one's work judged in an unjust manner; (4) being criticized; and (5) one's sense of judgment being questioned. The scale of social manipulation consists of seven items: (1) insulting comments about one's private life; (2)

insinuating negative glances; (3) backbiting; (4) spreading of false rumours; (5) insinuations without direct accusation; (6) not being spoken to; and (7) do-not-speak-to-me behavior (see Appendix C).

All 12 responses were made on a 5-point response scale including '0 – never', '1 – seldom', '2 – occasionally', '3 – often', to '4 – very often'. In the instructions participants were asked about the last 6 months and it was emphasized that the activities must have been clearly experienced as a means of harassment and not as ordinary communication or as exceptional circumstances (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Participants also specified the sex of the aggressor for each item. In responding to these items, participants were asked to report separately on their experiences in two roles: the victim role (how often these behaviours have happened to the participant); and the witness role (how often the participant has witnessed these bullying behaviours happen to others).

In the present study, the two subscales were highly correlated for both the victim role, $r(118)=.83, p<.001$, and the witness role, $r(118)=.86, p<.001$. Bjorkqvist and colleagues (1994) do not report the correlation between the two subscales; as such, uncertainty exists surrounding whether this strong relationship between the two subscales is unique to the current sample or whether these subscales do not actually measure distinct subtypes of workplace bullying. Because of the substantial overlap between the variance in the two subscales, the total score was used to assess aggression and manipulation in the workplace in the current study. The total score was created by averaging across all 12 items; total scores ranged from '0 – never' to '4 – very often'. The internal consistency of the 12 items was high for both the victim and witness role (Chronbach's $\alpha = .95$ and $.96$ respectively). A score at or above 3 ('often') is considered high (i.e., participant reports a high level of either experienced or witnessed workplace bullying).

2.2.3 Perceived stress. Participants were asked six questions regarding the degree to which they believed their work environment is stressful including four questions regarding role ambiguity (i.e., not knowing exactly what behaviours are expected in one's job) and two questions regarding role overload (i.e., having too much work to do in the time available). Items were taken from Beehr, Walsh and Taber (1976). Responses were made on a seven-point response scale including '1 – strongly disagree', '2 – disagree', '3

– slightly disagree’, ‘4 – neither agree nor disagree’, ‘5 – slightly agree’, ‘6 – agree’, and ‘7 – strongly agree’ (see Appendix D).

Beehr et al. (1976) reported a reliability of .71 for the four items measuring role ambiguity; however, they did not report the reliability for the two items measuring role overload as coefficient alpha is not strictly appropriate for two-item indices. In the present study, the correlation between the two items measuring role overload was $r(118) = .56, p < .001$. The reliability estimate for the four items measuring role ambiguity was very low (Chronbach’s $\alpha = .09$). When item 3 was deleted from the scale (i.e., “I don’t know what performance standards are expected of me”), the reliability coefficient increased (Chronbach’s $\alpha = .59$). As such, stress in the workplace was measured by examining role overload and role ambiguity separately, with the role ambiguity scale consisting of three items instead of four. The total score for both role overload and role ambiguity was calculated by averaging across the two items (for role overload) and across the three items (for role ambiguity) to calculate means. Higher scores are indicative of greater role overload or ambiguity within the workplace.

2.2.4 Competition. Participants were asked four questions regarding the degree to which they believed their work environment is competitive (items developed for the purpose of this study). Specifically, participants were asked to indicate the degree to which their work environment is competitive for the purpose of obtaining a job promotion, obtaining access to resources, obtaining a higher status and getting in good with the boss/supervisor (see Appendix E). Responses were made on a five-point response scale, including ‘1 – not at all competitive’, ‘3 – somewhat competitive’ and ‘5 – very competitive’. A total score was created to assess competition within the work environment by averaging across all four items and calculating the mean where higher scores reflect a higher level of competition within the workplace. The reliability of this measure was good (Chronbach’s $\alpha = .85$).

2.2.5 Fear. Participants were also asked a single-item question regarding the degree to which they feared becoming the victim of bullying behaviour (item developed for the purpose of this study). Responses were made on a five-point response scale, including ‘1 - not at all fearful’, ‘3 – somewhat fearful’, and ‘5 - very fearful’ (see Appendix F) with higher scores indicative of greater fear of becoming a victim.

2.2.6 *Descriptive norms of workplace bullying.* Descriptive norms of workplace bullying (i.e., *perceptions* regarding how often other coworkers are bullied in the workplace) were assessed using the same two subscales used to measure prevalence of experienced and witnessed workplace bullying (i.e., rational-appearing aggression subscale and social manipulation subscale). However, for the purpose of measuring descriptive norms of workplace bullying, the instructions and target of the bullying behaviour differed from what was used to assess experienced and witnessed workplace bullying. Participants were asked how often *they think* the set of behaviours had happened to others in their workplace during the last six months (as compared to how often they had experienced or witnessed bullying behaviours in their workplace). Responses were made on the same five-point response scale outlined above. Because participants were not asked to think of specific instances of bullying behaviour, they were not asked to indicate the sex of the aggressor(s). Similar to what was described above, a strong (positive) correlation was found between the two subscales ($r(118)=.84, p<.001$). As such, a total score was created to assess descriptive norms of bullying among coworkers in the workplace by calculating the average of all 12 items. The alpha coefficient for this measure was calculated to be .95. A score at or above 3 ('often') is considered high (i.e., participant perceives a high occurrence of bullying among coworkers in their workplace).

2.2.7 *Injunctive norms for workplace bullying.* Individual injunctive norms (i.e., what people are expected to do in any given situation) were measured through a series of seven questions regarding the perceived social consequences of bullying behaviour in the workplace (items developed for the purpose of this study). Specifically, participants were asked three questions regarding the degree to which bullying behaviour is accepted within their work environment, two questions about the positive social consequences of bullying behaviour (e.g., increased pay for the bully), and two questions concerning the negative social consequences of bullying behaviour (e.g., bullying behaviour is documented by a supervisor). Although the accompanying verbal labels differed on several items, all responses were made on a five-point scale (see Appendix G). Items 4 and 5 were reverse scored in order for all item responses to reflect a consistent direction (i.e., injunctive norms that support/reward bullying behaviour). A total score was created

to assess injunctive norms in the workplace by averaging across all seven items to calculate the mean with higher scores reflecting the belief that bullying is considered acceptable and typically goes unpunished in the workplace.² The alpha coefficient for this measure was calculated to be .76.

2.2.8 Willingness to intervene. Willingness to intervene as a bystander in a workplace bullying instance was examined by adapting the Willingness to Intervene measure used in previous research with early adolescents (Haffner et al., 2007). The measure is designed to examine both general willingness and the impact of various mitigating factors on willingness to intervene. The original Willingness to Intervene measure included hypothetical scenarios reflecting physical, verbal and social/relational bullying. The measure was created to describe realistic bullying episodes within the school context. Each scenario was written so as to involve two same-sex students with parallel forms available for boys and girls. The adapted version of the Willingness to Intervene measure describes bullying instances common within the work environment. Scenarios 1 and 2 were developed to reflect instances of rational-appearing aggression and scenarios 3 and 4 were developed to reflect instances of social manipulation (see Appendix H). Mitigating factors thought to influence willingness to intervene were taken from the childhood and adolescent literature, the adult literature, and responses to semi-structured interviews described earlier.

In the semi-structured interviews, informants were asked about the sex of the perpetrator, so that the researcher could decide how to construct the scenarios and whether the scenarios needed to differ for men and women. Informants suggested that bullying is not a gendered issue necessarily. In fact, one informant suggested that if there is a gender difference it may have more to do with the demographics of the workplace than meaningful gender differences in the occurrence and forms of workplace bullying. Some of the research suggests women are most often bullied by other women and men are most often bullied by other men (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Based on informants'

² To ensure items could be properly aggregated (given differing verbal labels for the items), each item was standardized and then averaged together to create a total score. The pattern of findings was identical for the "raw" composite mean and the "standardized" composite mean. For simplicity, then, findings are reported using the "raw" mean.

responses to the semi-structured interview, past research and for simplicity sake, scenarios were constructed to reflect same-sex bullying instances.

After reading each scenario participants were first asked to provide a rating of “how serious” the situation was using a 5-point response scale (i.e., ‘1 - Not at all serious’, ‘3 - Somewhat serious’ and ‘5 - Very serious’). Next, participants were provided with a definition of ‘intervening’ and were asked the general question: “How likely do you think you would be to intervene in this situation?” Responses to the general willingness question were made on a 5-point scale ranging from ‘1 –I would definitely NOT intervene’, ‘3 – Maybe – I might or might not intervene’, and ‘5 –I would definitely intervene’. This general question is considered to be a baseline of willingness to intervene in each of the bullying contexts. Next participants were asked the question: “How hard or difficult do you think it would be to intervene in this situation?” Responses to the question regarding difficulty were made on a 5-point scale ranging from ‘1 – Not at all hard’, ‘3 – Somewhat hard’ and ‘5 – Really hard’.

A series of probes followed the difficulty question. These probes were originally created based on existing literature which was used to identify possible factors related to an early adolescent’s willingness to intervene in a bullying situation; however these factors are not limited to early adolescent populations. Specifically, there are a number of factors identified in either the social psychological or developmental literature that have been linked to the likelihood of intervention. To begin, in an effort to investigate those factors that have emerged in the social psychological literature, participants were asked about their willingness to intervene when: (1) Number of witnesses to bullying situation varied (2 probe items): bystander is alone, bystander is in group; (2) Severity of bullying situation varied (2 probe items): victim is hurt badly, victim is not hurt badly; and (3) Another bystander reacted to the situation (1 probe item): someone else steps in to do something first.

With regard to those factors that have emerged from the developmental and/or adult literature, participants were asked about their willingness to intervene when: (4) The frequency of bullying differed (2 probe items): bullying is a repeated occurrence, bullying is a one-time occurrence; (5) There were varying attitudes towards the victim (2 probe items): bystander likes victim, bystander dislikes victim; (6) There were varying

attitudes towards the bully (2 probe items): bystander likes bully, bystander dislikes bully; (7) Bystander anticipated a reaction from the bully (1 probe item): fearful of retribution; (8) Perceptions differed regarding whether or not the victim deserved to be bullied (2 probe item): victim brought upon the behaviour, victim did not bring upon the behaviour; and (9) Bully had high status (1 probe item): bully is well-liked and popular.

Following from factors that emerged from the semi-structured interviews, participants were asked about their willingness to intervene when: (10) Cost of intervening differed (2 probe item): high cost to bystander, low cost to bystander; and (11) Past experience had an influence. This final probe involved three parts. First, participants were asked whether or not they had been in a similar situation, responding on a four-point scale including '1 – No', '2 – Yes - Once or twice', '3 – Yes - A few times', '4 – Yes - Many times'. If participants identified that they had been in a similar situation, they were then asked whether or not they previously intervened, responding on a two-point scale including '1 – Yes' and '2 – No'. If participants answered yes to the intervention question, they were then asked whether or not they were successful (i.e., the bullying behaviour stopped). Participants responded to this question on a two-point scale including '1 - No' and '2 - Yes'. These final two questions were recoded into '0 – No' and '1 – Yes' prior to conducting the analyses.

Excluding the final probe outlined in the paragraph above, participants responded to each probe on the same five-point scale used for the general willingness question described above. In addition, following the probes participants were asked whether they believed each scenario was a clear instance of bullying or harassment, responding on a three-point scale including '1 - Yes', '2 – Don't know', '3 - No' (see Appendix H).

2.2.9 Main reasons and barriers to intervening. At the end of the survey participants were asked two open-ended questions regarding the main reasons for why one would intervene in a bullying instance and the barriers to intervening. These open-ended questions were developed to aid in the development of future programming efforts aimed at alleviating workplace bullying among employees at the university in which this study took place (see Appendix I).

2.3 Procedure

The present study utilized an on-line computerized survey approach. Participants were recruited through on-line postings located on the university's website. Before completing the questionnaire participants viewed a consent form detailing participants' rights, including matters of confidentiality, the right to withdraw at anytime and the right to not answer any questions without consequence (see Appendix J). Participants completed multiple measures and then saw an on-line debriefing letter. As part of the debriefing letter, participants were provided with referral information in case they wished to pursue support to deal with bullying experiences (i.e., Harassment and Prevention Discrimination Office contact information; see Appendix K). In addition, participants had the opportunity to enter into a prize draw. Prizes included a \$100 gift certificate to McNally Robinson, two \$50 gift certificates to the U of S bookstore, and five \$10 gift certificates to Tim Hortons. To ensure that there was no identifying information collected with responses, those participants who wished to be entered into the prize draw were asked to e-mail the researcher after they had completed the study. It was noted in the consent form that participants' right to withdraw from the survey at any time would not impact their eligibility to enter into the prize draw.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Bullying Experiences

In relation to responses on the WHS, for the sample as a whole, the overall mean for reported bullying experiences was at the lower end of the scale for both being victimized ($M=.87$, $SD=.52$) and witnessing others being victimized ($M=1.12$, $SD=.96$). An inspection of the distribution of scores suggests that 5% (6 participants) reported a mean score at or above 3 (“often”) for victimization with 4% (5 participants) witnessing workplace bullying at or above the same “often” frequency. A larger segment of the sample had scores hovering around “occasionally” for experiences of being bullied (16%, 19 participants) and/or witnessing bullying behaviour (21%, 25 participants). In addition, 18% of the sample (22 participants) reported that they “seldom” experienced bullying in the workplace with 20% (24 participants) suggesting they seldom saw bullying in the workplace. The remainder of the sample fell, on average, into the response category of “never” for experienced bullying (61%, 73 participants) and witnessed bullying (55%, 66 participants). This descriptive information suggests that generally speaking workplace bullying (being the victim, witnessing the behaviours) for the present sample was typically low in frequency. Nevertheless, there was still a portion of the sample for whom aggression and manipulation in the workplace is clearly an issue. In addition, a positive association was found between experienced and witnessed bullying in the workplace, $r(118)=.81$, $p<.001$; as participants experienced more workplace bullying, they also witnessed more workplace bullying.

Although no specific prediction was made, a 2 (gender: male, female) X 2 (role: victim, witness) repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine possible gender differences with respect to the prevalence of bullying (either experienced or witnessed). A main effect of role was found, Pillai’s = .09, $F(1,117)=11.73$, $p=.001$, such that employees reported more witnessed bullying ($M=1.13$, $SD=.96$) as compared to experienced bullying ($M=.87$, $SD=.52$). There was no main effect of gender observed and no significant interaction between gender and role. Refer to Appendix L for non-significant source tables.

Although type of employment was also of interest in the present study, cell sizes made it impossible to include type of employment (with three levels) in the same analysis

alongside gender. Accordingly, a separate 2 (role: victim, witness) X 3 (type of employment: labour/services, teaching/research/scientist/clinical professional, administrative/managerial) repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine possible employment differences with respect to prevalence of bullying (either experienced or witnessed). Those participants who reported a type of employment that fell under two or more distinct categories of employment (13% of the sample) were excluded from the analysis. The same main effect of role was again identified with this reduced sample (described above) but there was no main effect of employment type and no interaction between role and employment type.

Although no specific predictions were made, the present study sought to explore differences among workplace bullying items with respect to the sex of the perpetrator. A series of chi-squared analyses were conducted in order to examine whether there were significant differences among the bullying items with respect to the sex of the perpetrator for both witnessed and experienced bullying. In total, 24 chi-squared analyses were conducted (12 analyses for witnessed bullying and 12 analyses for experienced bullying). With respect to both experienced and witnessed bullying a common pattern existed among several of the bullying items where participants reported more female perpetrators than expected by chance. All of these bullying items (with the exception of one item for witnessed bullying) reflected instances of social manipulation. In addition, this pattern (i.e., participants report more female perpetrators than expected by chance) was found among more items for the witness role, as compared to the bullied role (see Tables 1 and 2).

3.2 The Workplace Environment

A set of correlations were conducted to examine connections between workplace environments (e.g., highly competitive, stressful) and prevalence of bullying behaviour either experienced or witnessed. In accordance with the study's predictions, negative work environments were positively associated with the prevalence of bullying behaviour. More specifically, Table 3 shows that participants who were fearful of becoming a victim of bullying acts, perceived their work environment to be highly competitive and perceived their workplace to be highly stressful (in terms of role overload) reported more witnessed and experienced workplace bullying. Role ambiguity was not correlated with

Table 1

Sex of the Perpetrator for Experienced Bullying Items

Bullying Item	χ^2	M	F	Both
1. Reduced opportunity to express oneself	.13	29%	37%	34%
2. Being interrupted	.97	31	33	36
3. Work judged in unjust manner	1.62	18	32	51
4. Being criticized	.42	22	35	43
5. Sense of judgment questioned	.35	23	32	45
6. Insulting comments about private life	4.34	18	51	31
7. Negative glances	18.33**	11	48	40
8. Backbiting	3.00	17	36	47
9. Spreading false rumours	4.59	17	41	41
10. Insinuations	8.45*	10	44	46
11. Not being spoken to	8.78*	12	46	43
12. Do-not-speak-to-me behaviour	7.44*	21	38	41

Note. $df = 2$ for all analyses; ** $p < .01$ and * $p < .05$.

Table 2

Sex of the Perpetrator for Witnessed Bullying Items

Bullying Item	χ^2	M	F	Both
1. Reduced opportunity to express oneself	.60	36%	32%	32%
2. Being interrupted	.23	34	38	28
3. Work judged in unjust manner	13.93**	28	32	40
4. Being criticized	5.30	31	37	32
5. Sense of judgment questioned	5.44	30	33	36
6. Insulting comments about private life	7.6*	31	49	20
7. Negative glances	19.52**	11	49	39
8. Backbiting	12.31**	24	36	40
9. Spreading false rumours	6.80*	24	47	29
10. Insinuations	11.38**	23	55	23
11. Not being spoken to	13.21**	20	52	28
12. Do-not-speak-to-me behaviour	3.89	30	50	20

Note. $df = 2$ for all analyses; ** $p < .01$ and * $p < .05$.

Table 3

Relationships between the Work Environment and Prevalence of Bullying Behaviour

Scale	Witnessed Bullying	Experienced Bullying
Participants (n = 120)		
1. Fear	.70**	.77**
2. Competition	.44**	.47**
3. Stress (role overload)	.44**	.40**
4. Bullying Acceptable	.58**	.59**
5. Descriptive Norms	.81**	.77**

Note. ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed); degrees of freedom range from 117 to 118.

the prevalence of bullying behaviour either experienced, $r(118)=-.07$, $p=.46$, or witnessed, $r(118)=-.07$, $p=.47$. The perception that bullying behaviour is considered acceptable in the workplace and typically goes unpunished (including work environments that reward bullying) was positively correlated with the prevalence of both witnessed and experienced workplace bullying. Employees who believed bullying among coworkers to be commonplace (descriptive norms of workplace bullying) reported more witnessed and experienced workplace bullying. In addition, more negative work environments were linked to descriptive norms of bullying among coworkers in the workplace (fear: $r(118)=.67$, $p<.001$; competition: $r(118)=.39$, $p<.001$; stress (role overload): $r(118)=.46$, $p<.001$; and bullying considered acceptable: $r(117)=.56$, $p<.001$). Role ambiguity was not correlated with descriptive norms of workplace bullying, $r(118)=-.05$, $p=.56$.

3.3 Willingness to Intervene in a Bullying Situation

In an effort to evaluate participants' beliefs about the constructed workplace bullying scenarios, participants were asked to indicate whether they believed the scenario was a clear instance of bullying and/or harassment. For each scenario, the majority of participants believed the situation was an instance of bullying and/or harassment. Although the majority of participants viewed Scenario 2 (coworker denies a fellow coworker's request for help) to be an example of bullying, almost one quarter of participants were uncertain and 17% did not view the scenario as a clear instance of bullying (see Table 4).

3.3.1 General willingness, seriousness and difficulty. Three 2 (gender) X 4 (scenario) mixed model analyses were conducted in order to determine whether there were differences across scenarios and gender of the respondent in terms of general willingness to intervene, perceived difficulty of intervention and perceived seriousness of the situation (no specific predictions were made). No main effects or interaction were observed in the case of general willingness to intervene suggesting a stable level of intent regardless of the scenario described or the gender of the respondent. Indeed, the mean score for willingness to intervene (aggregated across scenarios) suggested that in general participants were somewhat neutral when deciding whether to help a coworker who is being poorly treated ($M=2.59$, $SD=.81$).

Table 4

Proportion of Participants Perceiving the Scenario to be a Clear Instance of Bullying

	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4
Yes	91 (n=106)	61 (n=62)	82 (n=81)	83 (n=77)
Don't Know	7 (n=8)	23 (n=23)	14 (n=14)	15 (n=14)
No	2 (n=2)	17 (n=17)	4 (n=4)	2 (n=2)

A main effect of scenario was found for perceived difficulty of intervention, Pillai's = .33, $F(3,106)=17.29$, $p<.001$. Paired sample t-tests were conducted in order to examine the main effect of scenario. A significant difference was found between Scenarios 1 and 2, $t(117)=6.14$, $p<.001$, Scenarios 1 and 3, $t(115)=5.67$, $p<.001$, and Scenarios 1 and 4, $t(111)=7.43$, $p<.001$. Participants perceived greater difficulty of intervention for Scenario 1 (public criticism from a manager; $M=3.94$, $SD=1.01$) as compared to Scenarios 2 (withholding information to promote failure), 3 (negative looks and attempts to belittle) and 4 (behind back personal attack from manager), with no differences observed amongst Scenarios 2 ($M=3.22$, $SD=.1.10$), 3 ($M=3.24$, $SD=1.20$), and 4 ($M=3.19$, $SD=1.10$). A main effect was also found for gender, $F(1,108)=9.66$, $p=.002$, such that males perceived less difficulty in intervening ($M=3.10$, $SD=.94$) as compared to females ($M=3.54$, $SD=.63$). No interaction was observed between scenario and gender.

A main effect of scenario was also found for perceived seriousness of the situation, Pillai's = .23, $F(3,108)=10.88$, $p<.001$. Paired sample t-tests were conducted in order to examine the main effect of scenario. A significant difference was found between Scenarios 1 (public criticism from a manager) and 2 (withholding information to promote failure), $t(118)=5.74$, $p<.001$. Participants perceived Scenario 1 to be more serious ($M=4.59$, $SD=.84$), as compared to Scenario 2 ($M=3.97$, $SD=.94$). This was also the case for Scenario 3, $t(116)=6.25$, $p<.001$; that is, participants perceived that public criticism from a manager was more serious than negative looks and attempts to belittle ($M=3.92$, $SD=1.01$). A significant difference was also found between Scenarios 2 and 4, $t(112)=-3.86$, $p<.001$ and Scenarios 3 and 4, $t(112)=-.54$, $p<.001$. Participants perceived that a manager making negative comments of a personal nature behind someone's back ($M=4.43$, $SD=.87$) was more serious than a coworker withholding information to promote failure (Scenario 2) and more serious than negative looks and attempts to belittle (Scenario 3). In summary, scenarios involving a manager making negative remarks, be they about professional or private matters and be they direct or indirect were viewed to be more serious than coworkers trying to sabotage others or trying to make others feel interpersonally ostracized. A main effect was also found for gender, $F(1,110)=6.01$, $p=.016$. In general, males perceived the bullying situations as less serious ($M=3.99$,

$SD=.94$), as compared to females ($M=4.33$, $SD=.52$). No interaction was observed between scenario and gender.

A series of correlations were conducted to examine relationships between ratings of seriousness, general willingness to intervene and intervention difficulty separately for each scenario (no specific predictions were made). For Scenario 2 (coworker withholding information to promote failure), seriousness of the situation was positively correlated with intervention difficulty, $r(116)=.29$, $p=.001$; as the perception of the situation became more serious perceptions regarding the difficulty of intervention increased. No additional correlations were observed within the other scenarios.

3.3.2 General willingness to intervene and negative work environments. A series of correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between general willingness of intervention and negative work environments separately for each scenario. It was predicted that negative work environments would be linked to less general willingness to intervene in a bullying situation. For Scenario 2 (information withheld), the correlation between general willingness to intervene and fear of experiencing bullying behaviour in the workplace approached significance, $r(117)=.18$, $p=.051$. Contrary to the study's prediction, as fear of experiencing bullying within the workplace increased so too did one's general willingness to intervene in a bullying situation increase. No additional correlations were observed within the other scenarios.

3.3.3 General willingness to intervene and prevalence of bullying. A series of correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between general willingness of intervention and bullying behaviour, either experienced or witnessed separately for each scenario (no specific predictions were made). For Scenario 2 (information withheld), general willingness to intervene was positively correlated with experienced bullying, $r(117)=.19$, $p=.036$; such that experiencing more bullying in the workplace was tied to stronger willingness to intervene in a bullying situation where a coworker withheld information and ignored a fellow coworker's request for help. No additional correlations were found within the other scenarios.

3.3.4 Mitigating factors for willingness to intervene. In the present investigation, there was a series of directional hypotheses involving situational probes on the Willingness to Intervene measure. In order to test these directional hypotheses, ten

separate 2 (gender) X 2 (contrast) X 4 (scenario) mixed model ANOVAs were conducted with the contrast and scenario as within-subjects factors and gender as a between-subjects factor. Each of the ten ANOVAs varied with respect to the *contrast* variable: (1) Number of witnesses varied (witness bullying alone, witness bullying in a group); (2) Perceived frequency of the bullying situation varied (repeated bullying, one-time occurrence); (3) Perceived seriousness of the situation varied (serious, non-serious); (4) Relation to the bully varied (like bully, dislike bully); (5) Relation to the victim varied (like victim, dislike victim); (6) Perceptions of whether or not the victim deserved to be bullied varied (victim deserves the behaviour, victim does not deserve the behaviour); and (7) Perceived cost of intervening varied (high cost to bystander, low cost to bystander). General willingness to intervene was used as the baseline against which to compare the following three situational probes: (8) Fear of retribution (general willingness, bystander fears retribution from the bully); (9) Status of bully (general willingness, bully is well-liked and has lots of power); and (10) Another bystander reacted to the situation (general willingness, another bystander reacts to the situation first). Given that main effects of scenario and/or gender were already addressed in earlier analyses, only effects involving the contrast variable are reported below.

Intervention of others. A main effect of contrast was found with respect to the analysis involving another bystander reacting to the situation, Pillai's = .26, $F(1,108)=38.81, p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, employees reported being more willing to intervene when another bystander reacted to the situation (i.e., steps in first; $M=3.40, SD=.84$), as compared to their general willingness to intervene ($M=2.59, SD=.81$).

Seriousness of situation. A main effect of contrast was found for seriousness of the situation, Pillai's = .56, $F(1,107)=137.59, p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, employees were more willing to intervene when they perceived the event as serious ($M=4.01, SD=.67$) as compared to when they perceived the event to be of a less serious nature ($M=3.20, SD=.80$). In addition, a scenario X contrast interaction was found, Pillai's = .20, $F(3,105)=8.68, p<.001$. Paired sample t-tests were conducted in order to examine this scenario X contrast interaction. For all four scenarios, participants were significantly more likely to intervene when they perceived the situation as serious (as

compared to less significant; Scenario 1: $t(119)=11.86, p<.001$; Scenario 2: $t(115)=8.21, p<.001$; Scenario 3: $t(112)=9.77, p<.001$; Scenario 4: $t(112)=7.55, p<.001$). Through an examination of the means, the interaction was created because the difference between serious/less serious was greatest for Scenario 1 (M difference=1.07), as compared to Scenarios 2 (M difference=.67), 3 (M difference=.83) and 4 (M difference=.64), where Scenario 1 involves a manager publicly criticizing an employee's work ethic (see Figure 1).

Number of witnesses. In contrast to the study's prediction that participants would be more willing to intervene alone as compared to in a group, the number of witnesses to a bullying situation (i.e., bystander is alone, bystander is in a group) was not found to influence a bystander's decision to intervene in a bullying situation.

Frequency of event. A main effect of contrast was found for frequency of the bullying event, Pillai's = .43, $F(1,106)=79.45, p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, employees were more willing to intervene when they perceived the event to happen a lot ($M=3.80, SD=.74$) compared to a one-time occurrence ($M=3.05, SD=.91$). In addition, a scenario X contrast interaction was found, Pillai's = .10, $F(3,104)=3.66, p=.015$. Paired sample t-tests were conducted in order to examine this scenario X contrast interaction. For all four scenarios, participants were significantly more likely to intervene when they perceived the event to happen a lot, as compared to a one-time event (Scenario 1: $t(119)=-9.75, p<.001$; Scenario 2: $t(114)=-7.39, p<.001$; Scenario 3: $t(112)=-7.867, p<.001$; Scenario 4: $t(112)=-5.88, p<.001$). Through an examination of the means, the interaction appears to be created by the fact that this difference was greatest for Scenario 1 (M difference=-.98), as compared to Scenarios 2 (M difference=-.72), 3 (M difference=-.76) and 4 (M difference=-.59), where Scenario 1 involves a manager publicly criticizing an employee's work ethic (see Figure 2).

Relation to the bully. A scenario X contrast interaction was found for relation to the bully, Pillai's = .08, $F(3,105)=2.87, p=.040$. Paired sample t-tests were conducted in order to examine this scenario X contrast interaction. For Scenario 2, employees were significantly more willing to intervene if they disliked the bully, as compared to if they liked the bully, $t(116)=-2.02, p=.046$, where Scenario 2 involves a coworker denying a

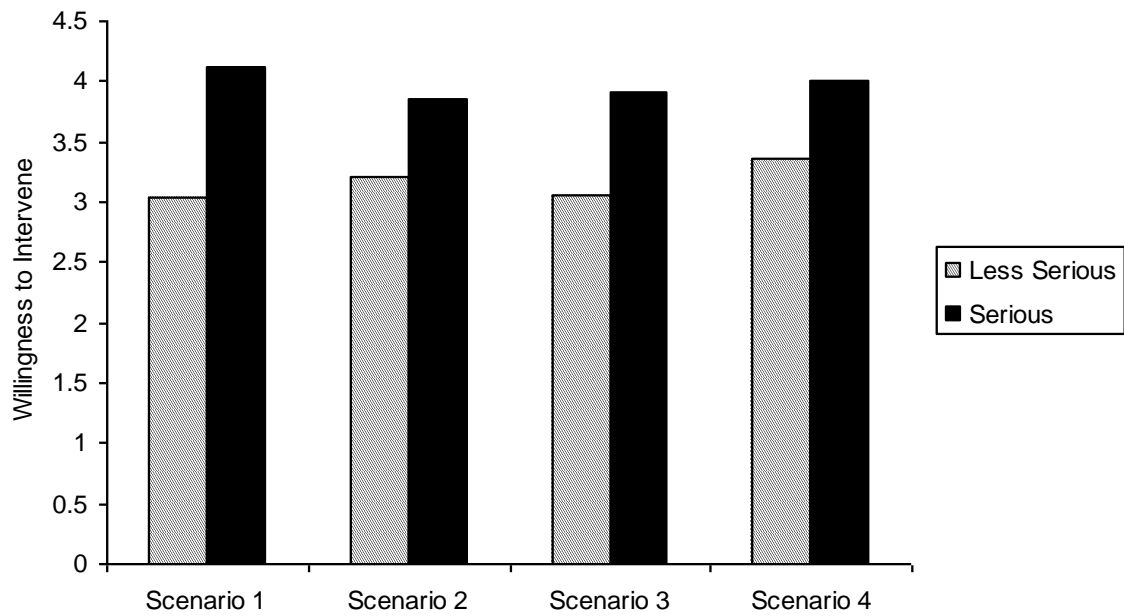


Figure 1. Scenario X Contrast (seriousness of situation) Interaction

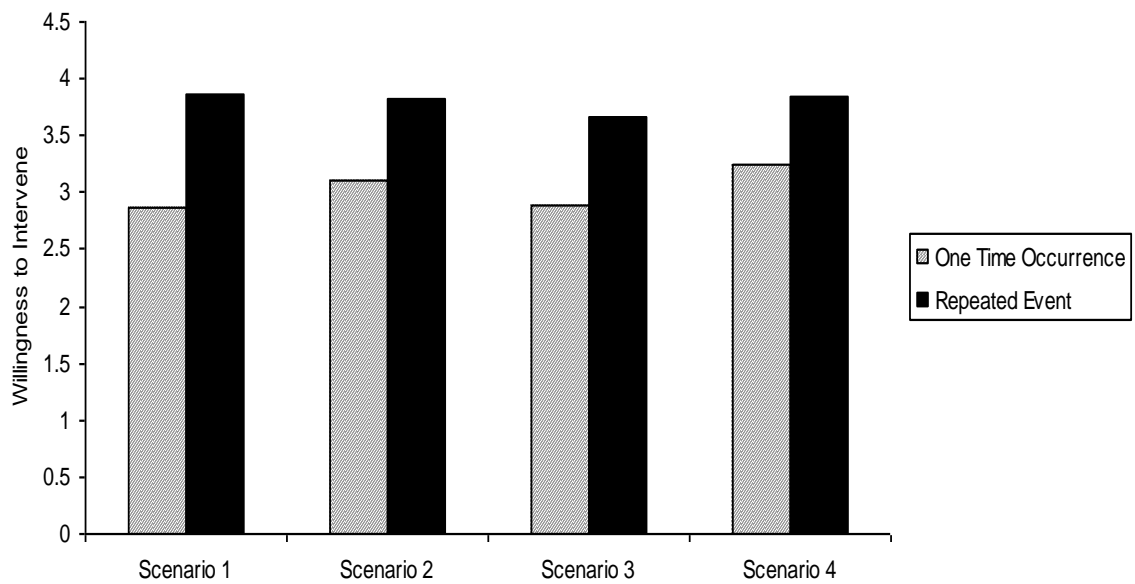


Figure 2. Scenario X Contrast (frequency of event) Interaction

fellow coworker information and help. A significant difference of contrast (i.e., like bully, dislike bully) was not found for Scenarios 1, 3 and 4 (see Figure 3).

Relation to the victim. A main effect of contrast was found for relation to the victim, Pillai's = .50, $F(1,109)=109.22$, $p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, regardless of the scenario, employees were more willing to intervene in a bullying situation if they liked the victim ($M=3.96$, $SD=.66$) than if they disliked the victim ($M=3.15$, $SD=.91$).

Fear of retribution. A main effect of contrast was found for fear of retribution, Pillai's = .18, $F(1,109)=23.44$, $p<.001$. In contrast to what was predicted, employees who feared retribution from the bully were more willing to intervene in a bullying situation ($M=3.24$, $SD=.92$), as compared to their general willingness to intervene ($M=2.59$, $SD=.81$).

Was the victim deserving? A main effect of contrast was found with respect to the analysis involving whether or not the victim deserved the bullying behaviour, Pillai's = .42, $F(1,104)=75.90$, $p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, employees were more willing to intervene if they believed the victim did not deserve the bullying behaviour ($M=3.89$, $SD=.66$), as compared to if they believed the victim deserved the bullying behaviour ($M=3.09$, $SD=.91$).

Status of the bully. A main effect of contrast was found for status of the bully, Pillai's = .19, $F(1,108)=25.89$, $p<.001$. In contrast to what was predicted, employees who believed the bully was well-liked and powerful (i.e., high in social status) were more willing to intervene ($M=3.30$, $SD=.93$) compared to their general willingness to intervene ($M=2.59$, $SD=.81$).

Cost of intervening. A main effect of contrast was found for the cost of intervening, Pillai's = .30, $F(1,103)=43.34$, $p<.001$. Supporting the study's prediction, employees who believed the cost of intervening would be low were more willing to intervene ($M=3.67$, $SD=.70$) compared to when they believed the cost of intervening would be high ($M=3.22$, $SD=.86$).

Past experience. For the probe involving past experience, a set of correlations (one for each of the four scenarios) were run examining the relationship between general willingness to intervene and whether or not someone had intervened in a similar situation.

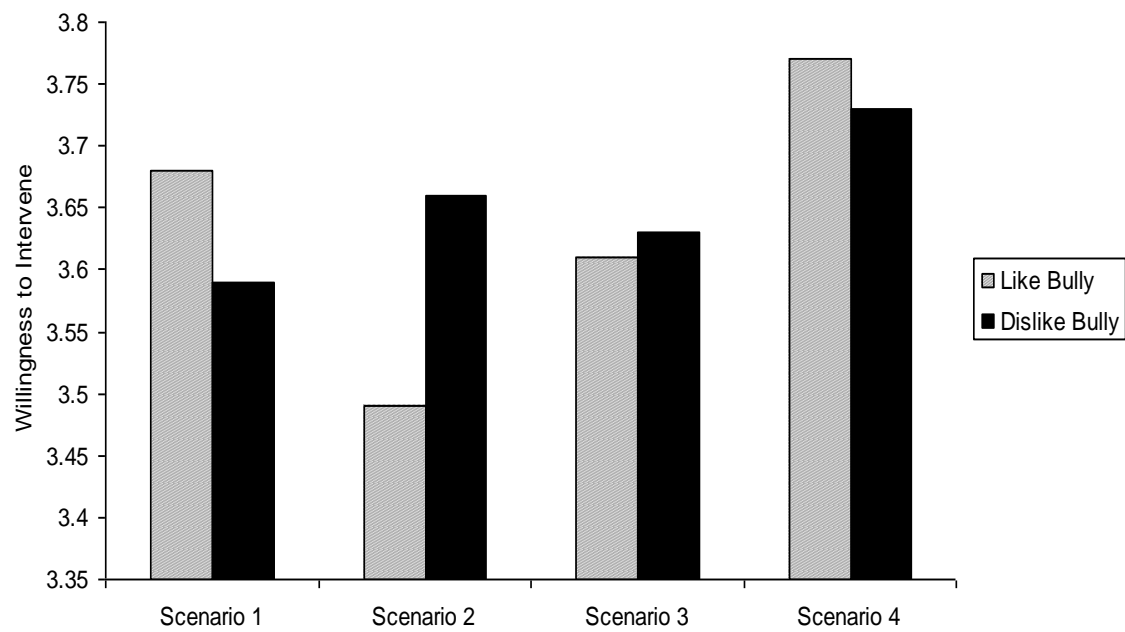


Figure 3. Scenario X Contrast (relation to bully) Interaction

It was predicted that participants would be more willing to intervene if they had intervened in a similar situation in the past. However, general willingness to intervene was not related to whether or not someone intervened in a similar situation in the past. In addition, a set of correlations (one for each of the four scenarios) were run to examine the relationship between general willingness to intervene and whether or not someone was successful when he/she intervened in a similar situation. It was predicted that participants would be more willing to intervene if they had been successful in a past intervention. Results indicated that general willingness to intervene was not related to whether or not someone was successful in a past intervention and this was true for all four bullying scenarios.

3.3.5 How participants would intervene in each scenario. Participants were also asked open-ended questions about how they would intervene in each of the four bullying scenarios. For Scenario 1 (public criticism from a manger) the largest response set (39 participants out of a total of 92) focused on confronting the bully (i.e., manager) regarding his behaviour. Many of these participants acknowledged that they would inform the manager (i.e., bully) that his behaviour is unfair, inappropriate, disrespectful and/or unprofessional. In addition to confronting the bully, 12 participants stated that they would inform the bully's supervisor about the incident. Eight participants acknowledged approaching both the bully and victim separately after the incident had occurred; these participants stated that they would provide support and direction to both the bully and the victim (e.g., inform the victim that he or she may wish to file a report to Human Resources).

For Scenario 2 (withholding information and help) the largest response set (28 participants out of a total of 72) focused on notifying the bully's manager of the situation. More specifically, participants acknowledged explaining to their supervisor that the victim's failure to contribute to the project may have more to do with the bully's lack of cooperation than the victim's lack of effort. In addition to informing the bully's supervisor, 13 participants acknowledged confronting the bully (e.g., letting the bully know her behaviour is unfair and/or that it is the bully's responsibility to help her co-worker, etc.) and 12 participants acknowledged confronting both the bully and victim separately to discuss the situation.

For Scenario 3 (sending negative glances), the largest response set (32 participants out of a total of 67) focused on confronting the bullies regarding their negative behaviour. More specifically, participants acknowledged informing the bullies that their inappropriate and immature/childish behaviour must stop. Several participants stated that they would tell the bullies to “grow up”. In addition, 13 participants acknowledged confronting both the bullies and victim separately to discuss the situation and nine participants acknowledged consoling the victim in some manner (e.g., offering support to the victim, going out of one’s way to be nice to the victim).

Finally, for Scenario 4 (manager attacks an employee’s personal life behind his back), the majority of participants (50 participants out of a total of 69) indicated that they would speak with the bully (i.e., manager) directly regarding the situation. More specifically, participants acknowledged informing their manager that his behaviour is inappropriate and unprofessional. In addition, several participants indicated that they would confront the bully and/or console the victim. In summary, for Scenarios 1, 3 and 4 the majority of participants indicated that they would confront the bully regarding the situation; however, for Scenario 2, the majority of participants identified informing the bully’s superior about the bullying behaviour.

3.3.6 Main reasons for intervening. At the end of the survey, participants were asked to identify the main reasons for intervening in a bullying situation and the barriers to intervening in a bullying situation. Participants’ responses regarding the main reasons to intervene in a bullying situation were influenced by two major factors: (1) seriousness of the situation; and (2) whether or not the situation was considered unfair/inappropriate. Thirty-six percent of participants (38 responses out of a total of 105) acknowledged intervening in a bullying situation when they perceived the event to be of a seriousness nature. Participants considered a serious bullying event as one where the victim is ‘hurt badly’ (e.g., physically, emotionally, psychologically, etc.). In addition, 33% of participants (35 responses out of a total of 105) acknowledged intervening in a bullying situation when they perceived the event as unfair and/or inappropriate. Although the majority of these participants did not elaborate on what an unfair or inappropriate situation may look like, several participants acknowledged that it is their responsibility

and/or moral obligation to intervene when witnessing a situation that is unfair and/or inappropriate.

In addition to the two major factors outlined above (i.e., seriousness of situation, unfair situation), participants acknowledged several other reasons why they would intervene in a bullying situation, including: perceived costs of intervening are low (e.g., bully will not retaliate if one decides to intervene; 13 responses); doing nothing will result in a more negative work environment (e.g., lower morale, decreased productivity; 12 responses); perceiving the victim as helpless (10 responses); perceiving the bullying behaviour as a recurrent event (8 responses); bully is not in a powerful position (8 responses); perceived success of intervening is high (e.g., bullying behaviour will stop; 6 responses); bystander likes the victim (4 responses); and bystander dislikes bully or likes bully (4 responses and 3 responses respectively).

3.3.7 Main barriers to intervening. Participants' responses regarding the main barriers to intervening in a bullying situation fell into two major themes or categories: (1) perceived negative repercussions of intervening; and (2) significant power difference between the bystander and the bully. Thirty-nine percent of participants (41 responses out of a total of 105) stated that they would not intervene if they perceived there to be negative repercussions resulting from an intervention. Negative consequences resulting from an intervention included: losing one's job (10 responses); bully seeking retribution on intervener (10 responses); situation escalating (e.g., victim is further bullied; 8 responses); safety of intervener diminishing (e.g., intervention threatens one's personal safety; 5 responses); and bystander's reputation is threatened (e.g., fear of becoming an outcast if one intervenes; 3 responses).

In addition to the negative consequences that may result from intervening, 32% of participants (i.e., 34 responses out of a total of 105) acknowledged that they would not intervene if the bully is more powerful (either formally or informally) than themselves (i.e., bystander). For example, participants discussed the difficulty of intervening when the bully is a manager/supervisor.

In addition to the two major themes outlined above, participants acknowledged several other barriers to intervening in a bullying situation, including working in a culture that encourages bullying behaviour (e.g., lack of workplace bullying policy, lack of

leadership, culture of tolerance; 13 responses), having low expectations regarding the success of the intervention (7 responses) and believing the victim deserves the bullying behaviour (5 responses).

Table 5

Research Questions/Predictions and Respective Findings

 Objective 1: Estimating the Prevalence of Various Workplace Bullying Behaviours in a Canadian Context

Research Predictions / Questions	Findings
Females will report witnessed and experienced bullying more than males.	Not Supported (no significant differences)
Is there a difference in the prevalence of witnessed versus experienced bullying?	Yes (witnessing > victimization)
Are there employment differences in the prevalence of bullying (either experienced or witnessed)?	No (no significant differences)
Are there differences among workplace bullying items with respect to sex of the perpetrator?	Yes (F > M; but, varied across items)

 Objective 2: Examining Connections between Workplace Environments and the Prevalence of Bullying Behaviour (either experienced or witnessed)

Research Predictions / Questions	Findings
Fear of becoming a victim of bullying will be positively correlated with workplace bullying.	Supported
Perceptions of workplace as highly competitive will be positively correlated with workplace bullying.	Supported
Perceptions of workplace as highly stressful (i.e., role overload) will be positively correlated with workplace bullying.	Supported
Perceptions of workplace as highly stressful (i.e., role ambiguity) will be positively correlated with workplace bullying.	Not Supported (non-significant correlations)
Perceptions that bullying is acceptable in the workplace will be positively correlated with workplace bullying.	Supported

Research Predictions / Questions**Findings**

More negative work environments (fear, competition, stress, bullying is rewarded) will be positively correlated with descriptive norms of workplace bullying.

Supported

Objective 3: Exploring whether an Individual's Willingness to Intervene is tied to Features of the Workplace Environment and other Mitigating Factors

Research Predictions / Questions**Findings**

Are there differences in gender and/or scenario in relation to one's general willingness to intervene?

No
(no significant differences)

Are there differences in gender and/or scenario in relation to perceived severity of the situation?

Yes
($F > M$; $S1 > S2$, $S3 < S4$)

Are there differences in gender and/or scenario in relation to perceived difficulty of the situation?

Yes
($F > M$; $S1 > S2$, $S3$, $S4$)

Participants will be less likely to intervene in the presence of others compared to when they are alone.

Not Supported
(no significant difference)

Serious bullying events (i.e., victim hurt badly) will be tied to greater intention to intervene compared to less significant events.

Supported
(contrast X scenario interaction:
 $S1 > S2$, $S3$, $S4$)

Participants will be more likely to intervene if someone else steps in to intervene first.

Supported

Participants will be more likely to intervene if they perceive the bullying as a recurring event compared to a 'one-time' occurrence.

Supported
(contrast X scenario interaction:
 $S1 > S2$, $S3$, $S4$)

Liking the victim will be linked with a greater likelihood of intervening than disliking the victim.

Supported

Liking the bully will be linked to decreased willingness to intervene than disliking the bully.

Partially Supported
(only for $S2$; no significant difference for $S1$, $S3$ or $S4$)

Being fearful of retribution will be linked to decreased willingness to intervene.

Not Supported
(fear $>$ general willingness)

Research Predictions / Questions (objective 3 continued)

Findings

A bully high in perceived status will be tied to less willingness to intervene in a bullying situation.

Not Supported
(high status > general willingness)

Participants will be less likely to intervene when they believe the victim deserved the bullying behaviour than when the victim did not deserve to be bullied.

Supported

Participants will be less likely to intervene if they believe intervening will take a lot of time and energy, as compared to little time and energy.

Supported

Participants will be less likely to intervene if they had intervened in a similar situation and were not successful compared to if they were successful.

Not Supported
(no significant correlations)

Are there relations between perceived difficulty of intervening, seriousness of the situation and general willingness to intervene?

Yes
(seriousness and difficulty were positively correlated, but only for S2)

Participants who perceive their workplace to reward bullying will be less likely to intervene.

Not Supported
(no significant correlations)

Perceptions of the workplace as highly competitive will be linked with less willingness to intervene.

Not Supported
(no significant correlations)

Perceptions of the workplace as highly stressful (i.e., role overload and role ambiguity) will be associated with less willingness to intervene.

Not Supported
(no significant correlations)

A greater fear (in general) of being victimized within the workplace will be tied to less willingness to intervene.

Not Supported
(fear and willingness to intervene were positively correlated, but only for S2)

Is there a connection between general willingness to intervene and the prevalence of bullying behaviour (either experienced or witnessed)?

Yes
(experienced bullying and general willingness were positively correlated, but only for S2)

4. DISCUSSION

There were three primary goals of the present study: (1) estimate the prevalence of workplace bullying behaviours in a Canadian context, (2) examine the connections between workplace environments (e.g., stress, competition) and the prevalence of bullying behaviour that is either experienced or witnessed, and (3) explore whether an individual's willingness to intervene in bullying is tied to features of the workplace environment and other mitigating factors. The discussion will begin by summarizing the study's main findings and subsequently explore the implications. Broader implications of the findings will be presented along with suggestions for future research and limitations of the current study.

4.1 Prevalence of Workplace Bullying

As highlighted in the introduction, little research has been done on workplace bullying in Canada. One of the primary goals of the present study was to estimate the prevalence of workplace bullying behaviours in a Canadian context. An inspection of the distribution of scores revealed that prevalence for workplace bullying in the present Canadian sample was on the lower end with 5% of participants reporting being *victimized* often and 4% *witnessing* workplace bullying often. These frequencies are comparable to frequencies reported in a review of European research (i.e., between one and four percent of employees report *serious* workplace bullying, Zapf et al., 2003). A larger segment of the present sample had scores hovering around "occasionally" for experiences of being bullied (16%) and/or witnessing bullying behaviour (21%). Using less stringent criteria for bullying, scholars suggest that in many European organizations, up to 20 percent or more of employees *occasionally* experience negative social behaviour (Zapf, 2003). Thus, the reported rate of occasional workplace bullying in Europe parallels that observed in the present study.

Although occurrences of workplace bullying in the present study are comparable to rates found outside of Canada, one must always be cautious when making direct comparisons across studies and contexts, as differences in research methodology may limit the ability to draw firm conclusions. Specifically, researchers have suggested that prevalence levels are lower when a stricter criterion of exposure is used (e.g., during the past 6 months), as compared to exposure to workplace bullying over a more extensive

period of time (e.g., throughout one's work history or within the past 12 months; Saunders et al., 2007). The present study used a "past 6 months" window, which may mean that the observed rates of workplace bullying are on the conservative side.

Despite no specific prediction, the present study sought to explore differences in the prevalence of workplace bullying with respect to role (i.e., experienced bullying, witnessed bullying). Participants in the present study reported more witnessed bullying, as compared to experienced bullying. This finding makes intuitive sense (e.g., there are potentially multiple witnesses to every individual perpetrator of a workplace bullying episode) and is supported by existing empirical research. Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) examined the prevalence of workplace bullying (including witnessed and experienced bullying) among a Danish sample of employees and found low levels of experienced bullying in all work sectors; however, in keeping with the present findings, they also found that many more of the respondents witnessed others being bullied (see also Hoel, Cooper and Faragher 2001).

Despite the prediction that female participants would report more bullying, as compared to male participants, no such gender difference was observed either for experienced or for witnessed workplace bullying. This non-significant finding is particularly surprising when one considers that the present sample was 70% female. Researchers such as Lewis and Orford (2005), Zapf et al. (2003) and Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) have observed that women more often report workplace bullying as compared to men. These authors have also suggested gender differences in relation to the form of workplace bullying; direct aggression (e.g., shouting, humiliating somebody) has been observed to be more typical among male bullies whereas indirect aggression (e.g., social exclusion, spreading rumours) has been seen to be more typical of female bullies. Because the majority of the present study's sample was female and since the scale used to measure the prevalence of workplace bullying reflects indirect forms of aggression, one would have expected female participants to report more experiences of workplace bullying than male participants. Although several studies have found that women report more frequent experiences of workplace bullying compared to men, other researchers have found no such gender difference (e.g., Rayner et al., 2002). Little research has focused on gender issues related to workplace bullying, especially with respect to those

who witness such negative behaviour. As such, more research is needed to explore possible gender differences with respect to both the prevalence of workplace bullying and type of bullying either experienced or witnessed.

Although no gender differences were observed for rates of bullying, participants did report significantly more female perpetrators than male perpetrators for both experienced and witnessed bullying. Interestingly, with one exception, differences in the gender of perpetrator were found for items reflecting instances of social manipulation. This finding was somewhat surprising given evidence to suggest that men appear to be over-represented among bullies in most studies of workplace bullying and that this finding parallels research examining school bullying (Zapf et al., 2003). However, research also suggests women are bullied more frequently by other women than by men, with men bullied more frequently by other men (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Because researchers have suggested that women are most often bullied by other women and since nearly three-quarters of the present study's sample was female, it stands to reason that a significantly larger proportion of the sample would report female perpetrators compared to male perpetrators. Furthermore, all of the items showing this gender difference (with the exception of one), reflected instances of social manipulation, a finding that fits well with the observation that females use social manipulation more than males (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994).

Virtually no research has examined differences of employment type in the academic arena; rather research has focused on more general employment type differences with respect to the prevalence of bullying behaviour (e.g., private versus public sector). Differences of employment type in relation to the prevalence of bullying behaviour were not observed in the present study suggesting that participants experienced bullying at a similar rate regardless of their type of employment (i.e., Category 1: labour/services, Category 2: teaching/research/scientist/clinical professional and Category 3: administrative/managerial). It may be that the absence of an effect of employment type was due to the way in which employment was categorized for analysis. The three broad categories of employment (i.e., labour/services, teaching/research/scientist/clinical professional and administrative/managerial) were not created based on an existing categorization system; rather they were developed according

to what the researcher deemed to be the most comprehensive/representative of the various types of employment at the university campus where this research took place. As such, a difference with respect to type of employment may have been observed if the job duties were categorized differently (e.g., inclusion of more than 3 general categories). It may be, however, that this null finding allows us to generalize to the larger university campus. That is, based on findings from the present study (i.e., participants experienced bullying at a similar rate) one might infer that most university employees are experiencing bullying at a similar rate regardless of their type of employment. Indeed, if it is the case that there are no differences across categories of employment in a university setting, the extent to which samples include representation for all sectors becomes less critical. It is not possible based on the current data to draw a definitive conclusion in this regard and further research is needed to examine possible type of employment differences with respect to the prevalence of bullying behaviour in the university environment.

4.2 The Work Environment and Workplace Bullying

Of additional interest was whether various features of the workplace environment would be linked to the prevalence of bullying behaviour. One way to define the work environment is by the values and norms adopted by those employed at a particular workplace. In keeping with current predictions and consistent with social norms theory, more negative work environments in the present study were linked to more workplace bullying.

Both the origins of norms (i.e., how social norms surface within a social system) and the various types of norms (e.g., descriptive norms, injunctive norms) may aid in our understanding of how and why workplace bullying transpires within particular work environments. With respect to the origins of norms, the societal-value perspective affirms that norms are culturally specific and variable and the influence of any norm results exclusively from its value to the culture within which it functions (e.g., Ciladini & Trost, 1998). Furthermore, within this perspective most norms are performed and rewarded repeatedly. Indeed, researchers have found that bullying behaviour becomes the preferred response in workplaces that reward bullying behaviour (Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004). Findings from the current study support past research findings; that is, the perception that bullying behaviour is acceptable in the workplace (including

workplaces that reward bullying) was linked to greater prevalence of both witnessed and experienced workplace bullying.

According to the functional perspective, norms are adaptive in an evolutionary sense and aid in our survival as a species (Ciladini & Trost, 1998). Linking the functional perspective to workplace bullying, researchers such as Rayner et al. (2002) and Keashly and Jagatic (2003) have suggested that a manager or coworker may feel stressed due to a high workload and resultantly, he or she may bully others as either an emotional response to the stress (i.e., affective aggression) or in order to obtain some result (i.e., instrumental aggression). In addition, highly competitive work environments may lead to bullying where the behaviour is carried out in order to “get ahead”. Finally, Hoel and Cooper (2000) have suggested that a coworker may bully another coworker in order to avoid becoming the victim. Findings from the current study support past research findings; that is, participants who perceived their work environment to be highly competitive and highly stressful (in terms of role overload) reported more witnessed and experienced workplace bullying. In addition, greater prevalence (experiencing and witnessing) went along with feelings of fear associated with being bullied. Thus, the current links between negative work environments and the experience of bullying are well supported by both theory and research. Indeed, understanding the *origin* of social norms helps to explain how and why bullying may surface within particular work environments.

Beyond the study of *origin*, the various *types* of norms (i.e., descriptive and injunctive) may also aid in our understanding of workplace bullying. As defined in the present study, descriptive norms are derived from the *perception* of what other people do in any given situation. It was predicted that descriptive norms of workplace bullying (i.e., perceptions of the prevalence of workplace bullying among coworkers) would be positively associated with both negative work environments and the prevalence of bullying behaviour. Findings from the current study support this prediction; employees who perceived more bullying among coworkers in their workplace (i.e., descriptive norms of workplace bullying) reported more witnessed and experienced workplace bullying and a more negative work environment (i.e., stress, competition, fear, bullying considered acceptable).

Injunctive norms are also thought to be related to the occurrence of certain behaviours. Injunctive norms are accompanied by social acceptance and/or approval. Researchers such as Henry et al. (2000) and Salmivalli and Voeten (2004) have found a positive association between environments that reward and accept bullying behaviour and the prevalence of bullying behaviour in these environments (similar to what was described above under the societal-value perspective). Findings from the current study support past research findings; that is, the perception that bullying behaviour is considered acceptable in the workplace (including workplaces that reward bullying) was linked to greater prevalence for both witnessed and experienced workplace bullying. As such, understanding descriptive and injunctive norms may help to explain the association between negative work environments and bullying behaviour; furthermore these norms may provide insight into what guides social behaviour within a particular work environment.

In summary, social norms theory (including the *origins* of norms and the various *types* of norms) may be used as a guiding framework to explain why bullying transpires within particular work environments. Although social norms have been used to explain many different types of behaviour (e.g., littering behaviour, drug use, sexual activities; Cialdini & Trost, 1998), the theory as a whole has not been specifically applied to workplace bullying. The literature that has discussed the existence of workplace norms has simply stated that workplace values and norms are thought to influence the prevalence of bullying behaviour (e.g., Cowie, 2002). By empirically linking the origins and types of norms to workplace bullying, the present study contributes new information to both the workplace environment literature and those interested in the application of social norms theory.

The only workplace environment factor that was not related to either the prevalence of bullying behaviour or descriptive norms of workplace bullying was role ambiguity (i.e., not knowing exactly what behaviours are expected in one's job). Role ambiguity was one of two subscales used to measure workplace stress in the current study. Role ambiguity was originally a four-item scale taken from Beehr et al. (1976); however, this four-item scale rendered an extremely low reliability coefficient. As such, one item was deleted from the scale in order to increase its internal consistency. Although

the new reliability coefficient was significantly higher (Chronbach's $\alpha = .59$) than that of the original four-item scale (Chronbach's $\alpha = .09$), it was still quite low. Many researchers have argued for a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher to be considered an "adequate" scale (Cortina, 1993). It may be that the reliability coefficient was low for the role ambiguity scale because the individual items are not tapping into the same construct; further work may be required to better measure the construct of role ambiguity. However, because the other subscale of stress in the present study (i.e., role overload) was found to be positively correlated with the prevalence of workplace bullying, there is still evidence to suggest that stress is linked to more workplace bullying.

4.3 Willingness to Intervene in a Bullying Instance

4.3.1 Participants' understanding of workplace bullying. In the present investigation, four hypothetical workplace bullying scenarios were created for the purpose of evaluating the extent to which participants would express a willingness to intervene and stop what was happening to a coworker. For all four scenarios, the majority of participants believed the situation reflected a clear instance of bullying behaviour. However, in the scenario depicting a coworker unfairly denying a fellow coworker's request for help, almost one quarter of participants were uncertain as to whether the situation reflected a clear instance of bullying and 17% did not view the scenario as a clear instance of bullying. Given that the majority of participants did consider this scenario to be an instance of bullying it was retained for the purpose of analyses.

Despite the fact that all four bullying scenarios were developed to reflect indirect forms of aggression, the bullying behaviour depicted in Scenario 2 may be distinguished from the other three scenarios by a less observable nature. That is, the bullying behaviour depicted in Scenario 2 is characterized by what the aggressor does not do (i.e., coworker does not provide fellow coworker with information), as opposed to what she does do. Leighfooghe and Davey (2003) assert that it is harder to dispute more observable incidents of bullying, especially bullying behaviour which has more to do with what someone does do, as compared to what someone does not do. As such, more ambiguity may have surrounded Scenario 2 because the bullying behaviour involved an apparent *lack of action* on the bully's behalf (i.e., coworker denies another coworker's request for help). In addition, unlike Scenarios 1, 3 and 4 where the bullying behaviour described is

central to the scenario, Scenario 2 involved an additional component, participants may have considered when making a decision about whether or not the situation reflected an instance of bullying. That is, in Scenario 2 the manager is unaware of the bullying behaviour and consequently, criticizes the victim's work ethic. The manager's lack of knowledge regarding the bully's behaviour may have further contributed to the ambiguity of the situation.

4.3.2 General willingness, seriousness and perceived difficulty. Analyses were conducted in order to examine whether there were differences across scenarios and gender of the respondent in terms of one's general willingness to intervene, the perceived difficulty of the situation and the perceived seriousness of the situation. No differences were observed across scenarios or for gender of the respondent in relation to one's general willingness to intervene suggesting a stable level of intent regardless of the scenario described or the gender of the respondent.

In contrast to general willingness, perceived difficulty in dealing with the situation and the extent of seriousness varied depending on what the scenario described and the gender of the respondent. Participants perceived greater difficulty of intervening when a coworker received public criticism from a manager (Scenario 1) compared to the remaining scenarios (withholding information to promote failure, negative looks and attempts to belittle behind the back, personal attack from manager). Scenario 1 involves a manager publicly criticizing an employee's work ethic in front of the entire office (i.e., employee is called stupid and lazy). Due to the public nature of Scenario 1, participants may have perceived there to be more risk involved with an intervention compared to the other three circumstances. For example, if a bystander attempts an intervention during a situation similar to Scenario 1, the bully (i.e., manager) may turn on (seek retribution from) the intervener, which most likely will be witnessed by multiple other bystanders and could lead to public embarrassment, shame, etc. The public nature of the situation combined with the bully's superior authority may increase one's perception regarding the difficulty of an intervention, as the bully has more power to punish the intervener in some manner (e.g., terminating one's employment, demoting employee, etc.).

In relation to perceived seriousness of the situation, scenarios involving a manager making negative remarks (Scenarios 1 and 4) were viewed to be more serious

than a coworker trying to sabotage another coworker or coworkers trying to make another coworker feel interpersonally ostracized (Scenarios 2 and 3, respectively). Managerial positions are often associated with some form of power or authority. As such, the two scenarios involving a bullying manager may be considered more serious because the bully has more control over the situation, compared to a bully who is not in a managerial position. Bullies in a managerial position have more power to terminate an employee's position, demote an employee, and publicly humiliate an employee without repercussions.

With regard to gender, females perceived the bullying situations as more serious and more difficult to intervene in, as compared to male participants. Studies, particularly those conducted outside the UK, have suggested that women may be more negatively affected by bullying behaviour than men (Rayner et al., 2002). Indeed, Lewis and Orford (2005) suggest that women report more significant negative psychological effects as a result of workplace bullying. According to these authors, "a women's experience of bullying in general is different and possibly more severe, independent of the number of negative acts to which they are exposed to" (p. 46). It is possible that the gender difference in perceived severity is tied to the observation that the negative impact of bullying is worse for women. Females in the current study also perceived intervening in a bullying situation as more difficult than men. To date, no research has examined differences in gender with respect to difficulty of intervening in a bullying situation. This difference in perceived difficulty may be a consequence of female socialization. According to Zapf et al. (2003), a female socialization process teaches women to be less confident, less forceful and more agreeable than men. As a consequence, the authors state that women may be less likely to defend themselves in a bullying situation. If a female socialization process does exist, whereby women are less confident than men, they may also perceive intervening in workplace bullying to defend others more difficult than men. Although scholars have argued theoretically for the influence of a particular female socialization process on workplace bullying, there is little empirical evidence to support this contention (Zapf et al., 2003). Further research is needed to examine the reliability of a gender difference with respect to perceived difficulty of intervening in a workplace bullying situation.

4.3.3 *Willingness to intervene, the work environment and prevalence.* A series of correlations were conducted to examine possible links between general willingness to intervene, seriousness of the situation, difficulty of the intervention, negative work environments and prevalence of bullying behaviour. Significant connections were only observed within the context of responses to Scenario 2 (i.e., coworker withheld information from another coworker). To begin, when participants perceived the situation where a coworker withheld information from another coworker to be more serious, they also perceived the difficulty of the intervention to increase. As discussed above, it is possible that because the bullying in Scenario 2 is characterized by what is not done (i.e., information is not fairly shared) as opposed to an outright act of aggression, it creates an ambiguous situation. As the perceived seriousness of this type of situation goes up, it may be challenging for participants to decide exactly how they would intervene in such a situation, accounting for the positive connection between seriousness and intervention difficulty.

In addition, experiencing more bullying in the workplace was tied to a stronger willingness to intervene in a situation where a coworker withheld information and ignored a fellow coworker's request for help (Scenario 2). Although no specific prediction was made, two possible explanations exist for this positive association. First, those who have experienced bullying in the past may be more empathetic towards others who are experiencing workplace bullying and thus, more willing to intervene. To support this explanation, in a meta-analysis by Eisenberg and Miller (1987), a positive link was found between affective empathy and prosocial behaviour. It may also be that those who have experienced workplace bullying in the past are more aware of what constitutes bullying behaviour compared to those who have not experienced such negative behaviour. Resultantly, these individuals may be more willing to intervene because they recognize bullying behaviour more readily than those who have not experienced such behaviour. This may be particularly true for Scenario 2, as participants were more uncertain as to whether or not the situation was a clear instance of workplace bullying compared to the other circumstances.

Finally, in contrast to what was predicted, as fear of experiencing bullying within the workplace increased, so too did one's general willingness to intervene in a bullying

situation increase (but only in the context of Scenario 2). Perhaps a bystander's outrage, from witnessing a bullying instance where a coworker withholds pertinent information, may overpower/outweigh his or her fear of becoming a victim; furthermore this outrage, may result in an intervention. It may also be that if a bystander anticipates that the bullying situation will happen to him or her in the future, he or she may take appropriate actions in order to decrease the chances of the same episode transpiring in the future (e.g., inform the boss of the bully's unhelpful behaviour). This association (i.e., between general willingness and fear) may have been restricted to Scenario 2 because participants perhaps were afforded more opportunity to construct personally relevant consequences of the bullying behaviour (e.g., victim's job is terminated), as compared to the other three circumstances. If this is true, participants may have been more fearful of becoming the victim for Scenario 2 (because they perceived the aftermath of the situation as more serious) and as such, more inclined to intervene in the bullying situation so that a similar situation will not happen in the future. Given that correlations between experience, seriousness, willingness to intervene and level of difficulty were observed for one of four scenarios, no definitive conclusions can be drawn. Indeed, it will be important in future research to replicate these findings in an effort to sort out what it is about the parameters of the scenario described (i.e., purposely withholding information and not helping a coworker) that lends itself to these associations.

4.3.4 The influence of factors from the social psychological literature. Variability in participants' willingness to intervene in the four bullying situations was examined with regard to a series of mitigating factors. In accordance with findings from the social psychological literature and supporting the present study's prediction, participants were more willing to intervene when they perceived the victim to be hurt badly by the bullying behaviour compared to a situation that is perceived as less serious (i.e., victim not hurt badly). This finding parallels an explanation in the literature for why the Bystander Effect occurs. Researchers have found that bystanders will be less likely to intervene when they are uncertain as to whether or not the situation is of a serious nature (Darley & Latane, 1968). For example, if a group of bystanders regards the event as non-serious a person may fear looking silly if he or she were to step in and do something. Although true across all scenarios, this level of seriousness discrepancy was greatest when a coworker was

seen to be publicly criticized by a manager. This pronounced difference for Scenario 1 may have been observed due to the public nature of the situation; because the bullying episode was witnessed by the entire office, the ongoing embarrassment which may result from being publicly humiliated could exist for the victim as long as he remains in the office. As such, participants may have been particularly inclined to intervene in a serious situation for Scenario 1 given that the victim may experience greater levels of embarrassment and humiliation.

Supporting the study's hypothesis, participants were also more willing to intervene when someone else intervened first, as compared to their general willingness to intervene. Another explanation for the Bystander Effect focuses on social influence; bystanders to an emergency situation will often be motivated by the actions of other bystanders (Darley & Latane, 1968). When someone else steps in first to intervene in a workplace bullying incident, it may simply be easier for the second person to support that effort. The two findings outlined above support explanations for why the Bystander Effect occurs (i.e., perceived ambiguity of event and social influence); furthermore, these explanations may be used to help explain why a person may decide to intervene in a workplace bullying situation.

Unlike what has been observed in the social psychological literature (e.g., Darley & Latane, 1968), an actual Bystander Effect was not observed in the present study; that is, the number of witnesses to a bullying situation was not observed to impact an individual's willingness to intervene in a bullying situation (i.e., contrasting participant is alone versus participant witnesses the bullying behaviour in a group). This finding is surprising for several reasons. First, two of the study's predictions concerning explanations for why the Bystander Effect occurs were supported. Second, the number of witnesses to an emergency situation has been found to influence willingness to intervene in numerous studies (Darley & Latane, 1968; Latane & Darley, 1968). According to Levine and Crowther (2008), the Bystander Effect has been supported by a meta-analysis, conducted by Latane and Nida (1982), of over 50 studies that established the idea that group size is negatively correlated with the likelihood of helping behaviour. Previous work notwithstanding, the Bystander Effect has not been specifically applied to bullying in the workplace; rather it has typically been used to explain interventions in emergency

situations involving strangers. Because the workplace is composed of individuals who know each other on both a professional and personal level, the Bystander Effect may not appropriately apply to workplace situations; employees in the workplace have more personal information to base their decision on in relation to intervening in a bullying situation (compared to strangers interacting for the first time). In the classic Bystander Effect, individual responsibility for intervention becomes somewhat diffused when there is more than one person present. This does not appear to be the case when it comes to intentions to intervene in bullying that occurs in a familiar workplace setting.

4.3.5 The influence of factors from the childhood, adolescent and adult literature. Supporting the study's prediction, participants were more willing to intervene when they perceived the situation to happen a lot, as compared to a one-time occurrence. An explanation for this finding can be borrowed from Pepler and colleagues (1999) in their examination of childhood bullying. These authors state that bystanders to a bullying situation may be more likely to intervene if they become distressed by witnessing repetitive victimization towards the same individual over time. For example, a bystander to a workplace bullying situation may ignore the behaviour at first; however, after realizing that the behaviour will continue, he or she may become distressed and then motivated to intervene (i.e., stop the bullying behaviour). Furthermore, this difference of frequency was most pronounced under circumstances in which a coworker received public criticism from a manager (i.e., Scenario 1). As outlined earlier, the bullying behaviour depicted in Scenario 1 is more public in nature compared to the other three scenarios. Witnessing such negative public behaviour may increase a bystander's distress even more so than witnessing more private forms of workplace bullying. As a consequence, bystanders in this situation (e.g., public criticism from a manager) may be particularly inclined to intervene, as compared to other (less public) circumstances of workplace bullying.

Perhaps not surprisingly, participants were more willing to intervene when they liked the victim. The bullying literature in childhood (e.g., Pepler et al., 1999) and the workplace bullying literature in adulthood (e.g., Gaernter, 1975) have suggested that attitudes toward the victim will influence one's willingness to intervene in a bullying situation (e.g., liking victim leads to an intervention, disliking victim does not lead to an

intervention). Indeed, it may be easier to empathize with and want to help a co-worker for whom one feels affection. In addition, participants were more willing to intervene when they disliked the bully but this was only true in the situation of a coworker unfairly denying a fellow coworker's request for help (Scenario 2). According to participants in the present study, the most ambiguity existed for Scenario 2 in relation to whether or not the situation was a clear instance of bullying behaviour. Because of the ambiguity surrounding Scenario 2, participants may have needed more reason to intervene in Scenario 2 (i.e., bystander dislikes bully), as compared to the other three scenarios. It may also be the case that stronger feelings about the bully decrease the ambiguity of the situation (e.g., participants may be less likely to give any benefit of the doubt to the bully). To date, the literature has focused largely on attitudes toward the victim with little attention paid to feelings toward the bully and as such, more research is needed to explore how attitudes toward the bully influence one's willingness to intervene in a workplace bullying situation.

Supporting the study's prediction, participants were more willing to intervene when they believed the victim did not deserve to be bullied. This finding supports Weiner's attributional model of helping behaviour (Weiner, 1980), which asserts that if a person's need is attributed to a controllable cause, helping behaviour is inhibited. On the contrary, if a person's need is attributed to an uncontrollable cause (participant is undeserving of the bullying behaviour), as in the present case, the probability of helping behaviour increases as does one's intention to intervene.

Contrary to the study's prediction, participants were more willing to intervene when they feared retribution from the bully. In general, this seems counter-intuitive in that fear typically serves as an impediment to action. However, it is possible that fear (e.g., the sense that this can happen to me) becomes a motivator to take action, and the bystander becomes angry or outraged about the bullying situation. In this case, the emotion of outrage may outweigh the fear of retribution from the bully.

In contrast to the present study's prediction, participants were more willing to intervene when they believed the bully was well-liked and powerful. One possible explanation for why participants in the current study were more willing to intervene if the bully was high in social status (i.e., well-liked and powerful) is that participants may have

perceived likeable and powerful individuals in the workforce as more understanding and/or easier to approach.

Supporting the study's prediction, there was greater reported willingness to intervene when the perceived costs of intervening were low. Research examining prosocial behaviour has suggested that people consider the costs of behaving prosocially before they decide to act; that is, people are more willing to behave prosocially when they perceive low costs to behaving in such a manner (Diamond & Kashyap, 1997). Linking this cost-benefit analysis to the present study, it seems likely that participants were more willing to intervene (i.e., behave prosocially) when they perceived low costs to intervening in a bullying situation (i.e., intervening would take little time and energy).

Finally, in contrast to what was predicted, an individual's general willingness to intervene was not linked to whether or not that individual had intervened in a similar situation in the past or whether or not the intervention was successful. There has been some evidence in the prosocial behaviour literature to suggest that perceived efficacy (i.e., the belief that helping behaviour will be effective) is a determinant of helping behaviour (Diamond & Kashyap, 1997). Furthermore, perceived efficacy may be influenced by the success of helping behaviour in the past. However, because workplace bullying instances are unique and perceptions regarding the situation can change depending on who is involved and the form of aggression witnessed, past experience (including the success of past interventions) may not necessarily aid in a person's decision to intervene in a bullying situation. As such, more research is needed to further explore the relationship between past experience with a bullying situation and one's willingness to intervene in a current bullying instance.

4.3.6 Reasons and barriers to intervening. Participants were asked an open-ended question concerning how they would intervene in each of the four scenarios. For Scenarios 1 (public criticism from a manager), 3 (coworkers send negative glances to another coworker) and 4 (manager attacks an employee's personal life) the largest response set focused on approaching the bully or bullies about the negative behaviour. Common words participants identified that they would use when approaching the bully/bullies included 'inappropriate behaviour', 'unfair behaviour' and 'unprofessional behaviour'. For Scenario 2 (withholding pertinent information), the largest response set

focused on notifying the bully's supervisor about the situation (e.g., informing the supervisor that the coworker's 'apparent' lack of contribution has more to do with the other coworker's uncooperative work ethic than a lack of effort on the victim's behalf). A possible explanation for this difference in type of intervention is that for Scenarios 1, 3 and 4 participants may have believed that by approaching the perpetrator, the bullying behaviour would stop (i.e., main goal is to prevent the bullying behaviour from continuing). However, for Scenario 2, because the manager was not aware of the bullying behaviour, participants may have been more motivated to prevent any major consequences from transpiring after the bullying episode (e.g., manager fires victim for doing a poor job). As such, the main goal of intervening for Scenario 2 may have been to prevent the manager from punishing the victim in some manner. In this case, participants would have been more inclined to intervene by informing the bully's manager about the perpetrator's negative behaviour rather than approaching the bully about her behaviour.

Participants were also asked two open-ended questions regarding the main reasons for, and barriers to, intervening in a bullying situation. Participants acknowledged that they would be more willing to intervene if they perceived the situation as serious and/or perceived the situation as unfair/inappropriate. In regards to the former reason to intervene (i.e., seriousness of the situation), both the classic social psychological literature as well as findings from the present study support the notion that those who perceive the situation as serious will be more willing to intervene in a bullying instance. Perceptions of unfairness or inappropriateness were not considered motivators to intervene when developing the survey for the present study; however, themes of fairness and appropriateness in relation to workplace bullying have been identified by other researchers. Saunders et al. (2007) compared researcher, practitioner and legal definitions of workplace bullying with lay definitions and found that lay participant definitions corresponded with researcher and practitioner definitions of workplace bullying. In addition, lay definitions of workplace bullying often included themes of fairness and respect, which are not currently included in researcher and practitioner definitions of workplace bullying. Similar to what was described by Saunders and colleagues, many participants in the current study defined workplace bullying as unfair and/or disrespectful

behaviour; furthermore, participants acknowledged these factors as motivators to intervene in a bullying situation.

Participants acknowledged that they would not intervene if they perceived there to be negative repercussions resulting from an intervention, including, for example, losing one's job and the bully seeking retribution on the intervener(s). This particular barrier to intervening in a bullying situation (i.e., perceived negative repercussions) has been acknowledged in both the childhood/adolescent and the adult literature. Interestingly, when the same issue was raised in the closed-ended prompts following the bullying scenarios, participants, on average, were *more* willing to intervene if they feared retribution from the bully. This discrepancy between open- and closed-ended responses likely reflects the fact that fear of retribution was a detractor from intervention, but only in a small number of cases. Future research is required to sort out how fear factors into the decision to intervene.

Participants also acknowledged feeling inhibited to intervene if the perpetrator had more power than them. Interestingly, this barrier did not reflect participants' response to a close-ended prompt following the bullying scenarios; on average, participants were *more* willing to intervene in a bullying situation when they perceived the bully to be well-liked and powerful. Because the close-ended prompt reflecting the bully's social status (in the willingness to intervene items) involved elements of both likeability and power, uncertainty exists surrounding whether one's willingness to intervene was influenced by the bully being well-liked, the bully being powerful or both. Resultantly, this close-ended prompt (i.e., social status of bully) may have drawn on two distinct constructs instead of one (i.e., likeability and degree of power), which may explain the discrepancy between responses to the close- and open-ended question.

4.4 Broader Implications of the Study's Findings

Little research on workplace bullying has been conducted in a Canadian context; furthermore, this lack of research is particularly pronounced among those who are employed in a university setting. As such, the present study is unique in that it provides new information to the workplace bullying literature. It is anticipated that findings from the current study may be used as a comparison with findings outside of Canada, as well as encourage further examination of workplace bullying within Canada. Findings from

the presents study may also be used to aid in the development and implementation of strategies to prevent and/or alleviate workplace bullying, particularly within the present university environment.

Understanding how employees interpret workplace bullying. In order to assess workplace bullying among a sample of university employees, it was important to capture how these employees understand and define workplace bullying. More specifically, participants were asked to identify how certain they where that each of the scenarios reflected a clear instance of bullying behaviour. Greatest uncertainty existed for the scenario that was most covert in nature (i.e., disguised behaviour). It may be the case that university employees in the present study are recognizing more covert forms of aggression as something other than bullying due to its disguised and ambiguous nature. With this being said, not recognizing covert aggression as a form of bullying is undesirable, as the targets of covert aggression may experience just as many harmful effects from the behaviour as those who experience more direct forms of workplace bullying. In fact, victims of covert aggression may experience more stress than targets of direct aggression, particularly if the workplace does not recognize covert aggression as bullying. This may lead the victims of covert aggression to feel that their apprehensions are unwarranted, which, in turn, may cause the victims to experience further anxiety and resentment towards the situation. As such, organizations must educate employees that more covert forms of workplace aggression are considered bullying and that similar to more direct forms of workplace aggression, this type of behaviour is not acceptable in the workplace.

Addressing larger, structural workplace issues. Negative work environments in the present study were characterized as workplaces that accept and reward bullying behaviour and were associated with more workplace bullying. The positive association between the prevalence of workplace bullying and a work environment that accepts and rewards such behaviour parallels other research findings. Archer (1999) examined bullying among Fire Service employees and found that bullying behaviour is often institutionalized and passed on as tradition (i.e., victims of and bystanders to workplace bullying labeled the behaviour as ‘customary’ and not as negative or spiteful behaviour; as cited in Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Findings from both the present study and other

research studies suggest that larger structural workplace issues, such as norms and values, can strongly influence how bullying behaviour is understood and dealt with in particular work environments. Rayner et al. (2002) refer to the 'culture web' when detailing how the organizational environment can encourage and sustain workplace bullying. These authors state that the "culture or climate is the major organizational element that allows bullying to continue by upholding norms of behaviour from an era when such behaviour at work was not questioned" (p. 85). As such, workplace bullying cannot be solely attributed to the bully's behaviour, but also, and perhaps more importantly, to larger environmental workplace factors that encourage and promote aggression in the workplace. Consequently, both researchers and organizations alike must focus on the organizational culture when tackling workplace bullying. Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007) state:

Bullying does not arise solely as a function of personality, but flourishes in specific workgroups that normalize competitive, abusive behaviour. If scholars wish to reduce the occurrence of bullying at work, they must address the larger, structural issues that allow it to persist. (p. 857)

According to Rayner and colleagues (2002), if a specific environment promotes or sustains bullying behaviour then that same environment can be altered so as to reduce bullying behaviour. Specifically, Rayner et al. suggest that the first step in creating a healthy work culture is to develop and implement policy and procedures addressing workplace bullying. Rayner and colleagues define policy as "a statement of the behaviour and/or principles that one seeks to encourage or discourage" (p. 164). Once the policy has been developed, frequent reminders of the policy's existence is crucial for the policy not to become ignored or forgotten. Furthermore, when developing a policy, procedures also need to be created, including both informal (e.g., ensuring good management and care on behalf of all staff) and formal procedures (e.g., deciding who employees should approach when making a formal complaint; Rayner et al., 2002). Although the development of policy and procedures is important for any organization wishing to reduce the occurrence of workplace bullying, a detailed analysis of policy and procedures is beyond the scope of this thesis. Going beyond the implementation of policy and procedures, Rayner and colleagues suggest that highly motivated organizations can take initiative to implement anti-bullying programs that educate employees about workplace bullying, teach

employees what to do in workplace bullying situations and encourage employees to act as positive role models for other employees in their workplace.

Viewing workplace bullying as a group phenomenon. Jennifer et al. (2003) assert that workplace bullying is a group phenomenon; not only are the perpetrators and victims of a bullying instance directly involved in the situation, but so too are those who witness the bullying behaviour. Results from the current study showed that significantly more participants witnessed workplace bullying compared to rates of experiencing the behaviour directly. This finding is noteworthy for several reasons. First, much of the workplace bullying literature has ignored the existence and experience of bystanders to workplace bullying. Indeed, more research must focus on the experience of bystanders to workplace bullying, particularly if employees are witnessing more bullying behaviour than experiencing the behaviour directly. Second, if employees are witnessing high levels of bullying behaviour, more efforts must be made to support these individuals, as witnessing workplace bullying can be just as harmful to the individual as experiencing the bullying behaviour directly. Indeed, Rayner et al. (2002) found a link between witnessing workplace bullying and increased sickness, absenteeism, as well as employees choosing to leave their job. In addition, Vartia (2001) found that employees who witnessed workplace bullying reported more general stress and mental stress reactions compared to those employees who had not witnessed workplace bullying. Accordingly, bullying must be considered a problem for the entire work unit and not simply as a situation involving the target and the bully.

4.5 Future Direction

Adopting a qualitative methodology. Although the present study contributes novel information to the workplace bullying literature, certain areas of workplace bullying are still in need of further exploration. To begin, most of the research on workplace bullying has adopted a quantitative methodology. However, qualitative research may also be helpful, particularly when attempting to understand the process of workplace bullying as perceived and described by individuals exposed to bullying in their work environment (Cowie et al., 2002; Lewis & Orford, 2005). Strandmark and Hallberg (2007) advocate that the qualitative study of individuals who have been exposed to workplace bullying

provides an “insider perspective” that is extremely useful in exploring how individuals make meaning of these social experiences.

Examining the workplace bully. Most of the research on workplace bullying has examined the victim’s experience; far less research has attempted to capture the bully’s profile in the workplace. This lack of research may be attributed to the difficulties associated with studying those who perpetrate aggressive acts and are manipulative within the workplace. For example, how does one decide someone is a bully and how would one recruit bullies to his or her research study? Several case study descriptions of bullies are found in the literature; however, these examples are few in number and Rayner and colleagues suggest these descriptions may not be generalizable to all bullies in the workplace (i.e., the case studies examining bullies display many different behaviours and situations). Despite greater difficulty capturing the experiences of workplace bullies, future research should find new ways to assess the experiences of those who bully in the workplace. This information would provide a more complete picture of workplace bullying and assist organizations to develop training programs aimed at targeting potential or possible bullies.

4.6 Conclusion

Measuring workplace bullying. The measurement of workplace bullying is a complex undertaking. How researchers define workplace bullying impacts the methodology adopted to assess workplace bullying, which in turn impacts reported prevalence rates. Workplace bullying in the present study was assessed according to the group mean on a cluster of 12 items and as such it is possible that the prevalence of workplace bullying was under-identified in the present study. For example, a participant may have indicated that he/she experienced or witnessed one or two of the bullying behaviours often; however, his/her overall score would still be low if the experience of workplace bullying illustrated in the remaining items was lower. One way to address this concern may be to assess the prevalence of each workplace bullying item individually. Yet to do so may create the reverse problem of over-identifying those who experience workplace bullying if the measurement of bullying were to include identification on the basis of single behaviours. It is important to note that the internal consistency for the 12 items was high for both the victim and witness role, suggesting that the 12 items

measured a single, unidimensional construct (i.e., workplace bullying). That is, responses on any one item (on average) were highly related to the total score suggesting a consistency in measurement. Nonetheless, the over- versus under-representation dilemma regarding prevalence reveals the complex nature of measuring workplace bullying. Given the critical role of accuracy and consistency in measurement, future research must carefully consider how workplace bullying is being operationalized and measured as there may be important potential implications for the findings in this area.

The need for a uniform definition. Participants in the current study experienced bullying at similar rates to European samples of employees; however, as outlined above, differences in research methodologies (including how researchers define workplace bullying) limit the potential of making firm conclusions. As such, researchers have called for a uniform definition of workplace bullying in order to make appropriate comparisons concerning the prevalence of workplace bullying across studies, contexts, and regions (e.g., Saunders et al., 2007). In addition to the ability to make necessary comparisons, Saunders and colleagues suggest that a uniform definition would assist in the development of legal guidelines as well as strategies to address serious and prevalent bullying issues in the workplace.

When developing a uniform definition of workplace bullying, it will be important to consider both definitions found within the workplace bullying literature, as well as lay definitions of workplace bullying. Indeed, past research findings, as well as findings from the current study, show that lay definitions of workplace bullying may vary from researcher and practitioner definitions and/or offer novel criteria to the definition of workplace bullying (Saunders et al., 2007). For example, findings from the current study showed that participants defined workplace bullying by acts of unfairness, inappropriateness and/or unprofessionalism; these criteria are not currently included among researcher and practitioner definitions of workplace bullying.

Limitations. One possible limitation to the present study is that the two subscales used to measure workplace bullying did not include more overt (direct) forms of aggression (i.e., shouting, pushing, etc.). However, while more overt forms of aggression are common in school-aged children, this form of aggression becomes less common in adolescents and even more uncommon in adulthood (Kaukiainen et al., 2001; Saunders et

al., 2007). Although ignoring more direct forms of aggression may be a potential limitation to the current study, one would anticipate extremely low rates of this type of aggression reported based on past research findings.

In total, 30 analyses were conducted to test various hypotheses and research questions. Although multiple comparisons increase the chance of Type I error (i.e., rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true), specific hypotheses needed to be tested directly and a number of the research questions were exploratory in nature. One option would have been to set a more conservative alpha value (e.g., $p < .01$), however, most p -values were observed to be less than .001 suggesting that a more conservative alpha level would not have substantially altered the way in which findings were interpreted or the overall story presented.

Another limitation relates to the present study's sample. Because participants self-selected to participate in the study, certain groups were overrepresented (i.e., females), while other groups may have been underrepresented. To begin, female participants were overrepresented in the sample (i.e., 70% female versus 30% male). In the present context, females constitute just over half (56%) of those employed at the University (University of Saskatchewan, 2007). This over-representation of females in the sample most likely impacted several of the study's results; particularly those analyses involving a gender comparison. In addition to an overrepresentation of females, certain groups may have been underrepresented in the current study. Specifically, those employees who do not have regular access to a computer would have been less likely to see the survey advertisement on the university's website and as such, less likely to complete the survey. Furthermore, those university employees who have little privacy in their workspace may have been deterred from completing the survey (particularly those who feared their manager or supervisor finding out about the survey). Because it was not possible to access specific information regarding the U of S population (i.e., employee characteristics), one cannot determine whether the study's sample is reflective of the university's employee population or whether the findings can be generalized to the larger university campus with great certainty.

An additional limitation to the present study involves the extent to which the relationships between variables may have been inflated by shared method variance. For

example, many of the correlations rendered extremely high Pearson R values (e.g., correlation between experienced and witnessed bullying was $r=.81$). Because data was obtained from a single, subjective source (i.e., participants reported on their perceptions of workplace bullying), it is possible that beliefs regarding one variable (e.g., rates of experienced bullying) influenced perceptions concerning another variable (e.g., rates of witnessed bullying), in turn creating a stronger association than actually is the case purely as a function of the commonality of self-reports. Future researchers may wish to collect more objective data using multiple sources. For example, although direct observations may not be feasible, it might be possible for co-workers to provide what are referred to in the developmental literature as “peer nominations” or “peer ratings” of who is victimized in the workplace in order to cross-validate self-reports of experience.

In summary, findings from the present study reveal the complex makeup of the work place. To begin, the larger organizational climate (including values and norms) can influence how an organization functions and in relation to the current paper, how an organization defines and deals with workplace bullying. Furthermore, bullying situations in the workplace involve many different actors, including the victim, the bully, and the bystanders who witness such negative behaviour. Because employees are often witnesses to workplace bullying, organizations must develop policies, procedures and anti-bullying programs that consider and support not only the victims and bullies of workplace bullying, but also the bystanders to workplace bullying. Moreover, because most bullying instances are witnessed by other employees in the workplace, it is necessary for organizations to educate and encourage bystanders to actively play a role in alleviating workplace bullying (e.g., by intervening in such situations). Despite a recent flourish of activity, further research on workplace bullying, especially within Canada, is required both to better understand how workplace bullying is being defined and understood, as well as to aid organizations to develop ways to reduce the occurrence of bullying in the workplace.

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APPENDIX A

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

I would like to begin by thanking you for providing your expertise to this research project. The goal of this interview is to understand how you experience workplace bullying and how you define and/or understand bullying in your work environment. With the information from the interviews, I can decipher whether the subjective experiences of employees, including how employees define workplace bullying, correspond with the existing literature. In addition, data from the interviews will be used to help develop specific bullying scenarios, which are intended to examine willingness to intervene in bullying instances in a subsequent phase of this research project. You are free to decide at any time to not complete the interview, or to not answer any specific question that makes you uncomfortable. All answers to the present study will be anonymous and no direct quotations will be used in the dissemination of the results. If you have any questions/concerns regarding the consent form or at any time during the interview please do not hesitate to ask.

Note: Researcher asks informant if the interview could be audio-taped.

Demographic Information

1. Gender M F
2. Could you please provide a description of your previous work-related experience that makes you knowledgeable about workplace bullying (e.g., work history, what population/groups have you worked with?)

Workplace Bullying Questions

I would now like to ask you some questions regarding how you define workplace bullying. As mentioned prior, this information is necessary to compare it with the definitions of workplace bullying found in the literature.

3. What does bullying look like in your work environment?
4. What do you think bullying may look like in different (other) work environments on this campus?

I would now like us to review some behaviours that appear on an existing workplace bullying measure (i.e., Work Harassment Scale). Specifically I would like your input on whether the behaviours are a good index of bullying behaviours you hear about and/or witness in your work environment. The Work Harassment Scale can be split into two subscales, reflecting subtypes of indirect aggression.

5. Covert/Disguised Aggression (“rational-appearing aggression”):
 - a. reduced opportunity to express oneself
 - b. being interrupted
 - c. having one’s work judged in an unjust manner

- d. being criticized
- e. one's sense of judgment being questioned
- 6. Social Manipulation:
 - a. insulting comments about one's private life
 - b. insinuating negative glances
 - c. spreading of false rumors
 - d. insinuations without direct accusation
 - e. not being spoken to
 - f. do-not-speak-to-me behaviour

Have you seen the following behaviours in your workplace?

- 7. Someone's professional status being threatened (e.g., belittling opinion, public professional humiliation, accusations regarding lack of effort)?
- 8. Someone's personal standing being threatened (e.g., name-calling, insults, intimidations, devaluing with reference to age)?
- 9. Someone being isolated (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, withholding information)?
- 10. Someone being overworked (e.g., undue pressure, impossible deadlines, unnecessary disruptions)?
- 11. Destabilization (e.g., failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks, removal of responsibility, repeated reminders of blunders, setting someone up to fail)?

Most literature describes workplace bullying as an occurrence, which is repetitive in nature, involves an imbalance of power between the bully and victim and is typically intentional.

- 12. Do you think a person needs to repeatedly bully the same victim in order for it to be recognized as bullying?
- 13. How would you define repetition (e.g., level of frequency/duration – one incident per week over a period of at least 6 months)?
- 14. Do you think a victim must feel inferior to the perpetrator in some manner in order for it to be recognized as bullying?
- 15. Do you think bullying behaviour needs to be an intentional act in order for it to be recognized as bullying?
- 16. How would you define intent?

Little research has focused on gender issues related to workplace bullying. However, this is an important topic in need of investigation. I would like to ask you a few gender-related questions.

- 17. Do you think one gender experiences more bullying, as compared to the other?
- 18. Do you think one gender bullies more in the workplace?
- 19. Do you think one gender is bullied more in the workplace?
- 20. Have you noticed particular bullying behaviours that are more common for one gender, as compared to the other?

Willingness to Intervene Questions

I would now like to ask you some questions regarding the existence and experiences of bystanders, or those individuals who witness the bullying episode. This information will aid in the development of Phase 2 of the current study, which is intended to examine a bystander's willingness to intervene in a bullying instance.

21. What factor(s) have you noticed that would make someone who witnessed a bullying incident hesitant of reporting and/or intervening in the situation?

Probes:

- Presence of other witnesses
 - Seriousness of the situation
 - Someone else stepping in first
 - Perceived frequency of the situation
 - Feelings towards the bully/victim
 - Fear of retribution
 - Status of the bully
 - Gender of the victim
 - Difficulty of intervention
 - Empathy for the victim (affect)
 - Attributions of responsibility on the part of the victim (controllability)
22. For the purpose of the development of bullying scenarios: Are there any recurring context in which victimization has been observed/reported to have taken place?

Work Environment Questions

The work environment has been thought to influence how and whether bullying is acknowledged as a problem. I would like to ask you some questions regarding what types of work environments either promote or dissuade workplace bullying and bystander intervention.

23. What type of work environment do you think would allow workplace bullying to flourish?
24. What type of work environment reduces victimization? ____
25. Do you think work environments that reward bullying result in higher frequencies of bullying within that particular environment? ____
26. What type of work environment do you think would dissuade employees from intervening when they see bullying taking place?
27. What type of work environment do you think would facilitate bystander intervention?

Other Questions

Who do people go to with problems?

Do you think I will encounter resistance to this project (e.g., administration, union representatives)?

APPENDIX B

Demographic Questions

1. What gender are you?
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Female
2. What is your ethnic heritage?
 - ☐ Aboriginal/Native People
 - ☐ European-Canadian
 - ☐ African/Caribbean
 - ☐ South-Asian
 - ☐ Asian-Canadian
 - ☐ Latin American
 - ☐ Other
 - ☐ Don't Know
3. If you chose "other", please describe your ethnic heritage.
4. How old are you? (in years)
5. Please indicate which duties apply to your job. (check as many as apply)
 - ☐ Ancillary Services (e.g. cafeteria worker/cook/food services)
 - ☐ Applied Scientific Services (e.g. technician/nurse/graphic designer)
 - ☐ Extension Specialist
 - ☐ Facility Services (e.g. caretaker/labourer/general maintenance)
 - ☐ Faculty Lecturer (e.g. tenured/sessional)
 - ☐ Information Technology
 - ☐ Instructional
 - ☐ Managerial
 - ☐ Operational Administrative
 - ☐ Operational Services (e.g. library assistant/postal clerk)
 - ☐ Professional Librarian
 - ☐ Scientist (e.g. research scientist/professional researcher)
 - ☐ Security Services (e.g. community peace officer)
 - ☐ Specialist Professional
 - ☐ Trade Services (e.g. painter/automechanic/plumber)
 - ☐ Other
6. If you chose "other", please indicate which duties apply to your job.

APPENDIX C

Work Harassment Scale: Victim Measure

The next set of questions will ask about your experiences with aggression and manipulation in the workplace.

How often have the following behaviours HAPPENED TO YOU in your workplace during the last six months? Your workplace refers to your work unit including those people who you work most closely with. In addition, if you have experienced the behaviour, please indicate whether the aggressor(s) had been male, female or both.

The activities below must have been clearly experienced as means of harassment and not as normal communication or as exceptional occasions. That is, the acts of aggression were performed with the intention of deliberately hurting and causing psychological pain to the target of these acts.

1. Reduced opportunity to express oneself

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

2. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

3. Being interrupted

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

4. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

5. Having one's work judged in an unjust manner

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often

- Very Often
6. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?
- Male
 - Female
 - Both
 - Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)
- 7. Being criticized**
- Never
 - Seldom
 - Occasionally
 - Often
 - Very Often
8. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?
- Male
 - Female
 - Both
 - Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)
- 9. One's sense of judgment being questioned**
- Never
 - Seldom
 - Occasionally
 - Often
 - Very Often
10. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?
- Male
 - Female
 - Both
 - Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)
- 11. Insulting comments about one's private life**
- Never
 - Seldom
 - Occasionally
 - Often
 - Very Often
12. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?
- Male
 - Female
 - Both
 - Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

13. Insinuating negative glances

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

14. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

15. Backbiting

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

16. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

17. Spreading of false rumours

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

18. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

19. Insinuations without direct accusation

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

20. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

21. Not being spoken to

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

22. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

23. Do-not-speak-to-me behaviour

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

24. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

APPENDIX C Continued
Work Harassment Scale: Witness Measure

How often have you WITNESSED the following behaviours happen to others in your workplace during the last six months?

1. Reduced opportunity to express oneself

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

2. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

3. Being interrupted

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

4. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

5. Having one's work judged in an unjust manner

- ☐ Never
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Very Often

6. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Both
- ☐ Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

7. Being criticized

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

8. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

9. One's sense of judgment being questioned

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

10. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

11. Insulting comments about one's private life

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

12. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

13. Insinuating negative glances

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

14. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male

- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

15. Backbiting

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

16. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

17. Spreading of false rumours

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

18. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

19. Insinuations without direct accusation

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

20. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

21. Not being spoken to

- Never
- Seldom

- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

22. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

23. Do-not-speak-to-me behaviour

- Never
- Seldom
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often

24. Was the aggressor(s) male, female or both?

- Male
- Female
- Both
- Not applicable (I did not experience the above behaviour)

APPENDIX D
Perceived Stress Measure

The next set of questions asks about your work environment. Please indicate how much you agree with each statement.

1. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.
2. My supervisor makes sure his/her people have clear goals to achieve.
3. I don't know what performance standards are expected of me.
4. The performance standards on my job are too high.
5. My supervisor makes it clear how I should do my work.
6. It is clear what is expected of me.

Response set for all six items: (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree)

APPENDIX E
Competition Measure

Please indicate the degree to which your work environment is competitive for the purpose of:

1. Obtaining a job promotion
2. Obtaining access to resources that you need and/or want
3. Obtaining higher status
4. Getting in good with the boss/supervisor

Response set for all four items: (1 – Not at all competitive, 2, 3 – Somewhat competitive, 4, 5 – Very competitive).

APPENDIX F
Fear Item

1. Please indicate the degree to which you fear experiencing aggressive or socially manipulative behaviour in your workplace.

Response set for item: (1 – Not at all fearful, 2, 3 – Somewhat fearful, 4, 5 – Very fearful).

APPENDIX G

Injunctive Norm Items

You will now be asked a series of questions regarding the social consequences of aggressive behaviour in the workplace. Please answer all questions on a response scale from 1 through 5.

1. Do you believe that aggression/manipulation is acceptable within your work environment?

Response Scale: (1 – Not at all acceptable, 2 – Not really acceptable, 3 – Somewhat acceptable, 4 – Mostly acceptable, 5 – Very acceptable)

2. Do you believe that aggression/manipulation is common place within your work environment?

Response Scale: (1 – Not at all common place, 2 – Not really common place, 3 – Somewhat common place, 4 – Mostly common place, 5 – Very much common place)

3. Do you believe that aggression/manipulation is a rite of passage within your work environment? (e.g., initiation of a new employee)

Response Scale: (1 – Not at all a rite of passage, 2 – Not really a rite of passage, 3 – Somewhat a rite of passage, 4 – Mostly a rite of passage, 5 – Very much a rite of passage)

4. Are people who act aggressively towards others or manipulate others likely to be rejected in your work environment?

Response Scale: (1 – Not at all likely, 2 – Not really likely, 3 – Somewhat likely, 4 – Pretty likely, 5 – Very likely)

5. Are people who act aggressively towards others or manipulate others likely to have their behaviour(s) documented/recorded by a supervisor?

Response Scale: (1 – Not at all likely, 2 – Not really likely, 3 – Somewhat likely, 4 – Pretty likely, 5 – Very likely)

6. Does aggressive behaviour or manipulation lead to job promotions for co-workers in your work environment?

Response Scale: (1 – Never, 2 – Rarely, 3 – Sometimes, 4 – Fairly often, 5 – Extremely often)

7. Does aggressive behaviour or manipulation lead to increased pay for co-workers in your work environment?

Response Scale: (1 – Never, 2 – Rarely, 3 – Sometimes, 4 – Fairly often, 5 – Extremely often)

APPENDIX H
Willingness to Intervene Measure
Version 1

Read the story below and answer the questions that follow. There are no right or wrong answers – the only thing that matters is your opinion.

You are working at your desk/table when you notice your manager, Robert, approach one of your coworkers, Dan. Robert begins to openly criticize Dan's lack of effort. Anytime Dan tries to speak, Robert interrupts him and publicly humiliates Dan in front of the entire office, calling him stupid and lazy.

1. How serious (e.g., inappropriate, severe) do you think this situation is?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all serious
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat serious
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Very serious

The next set of questions ask you about “intervening”, which means trying to stop what is happening by going to get help or maybe doing something or saying something to Robert or Dan.

2. How likely do you think you would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – I would definitely NOT intervene
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Maybe – I might or I might not intervene
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – I would definitely intervene
3. How difficult do you think it would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all hard
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat hard
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Really hard

Please respond to the next set of questions on a 5-point response scale where:

1 = I would definitely NOT intervene
3 = Maybe - I might or I might not intervene
5 = I would definitely intervene

How likely would you be to intervene...(choose one answer only)

4. If you were the only one who saw what happened and you knew no one else was around to do anything?
5. If you thought this was a one-time thing that would likely never happen again?
6. If Dan was a good friend of yours?
7. If you did not like Dan at all?
8. If it seemed like Dan was being hurt badly by this?
9. If Robert was a good friend of yours?
10. If you saw someone else step in and do something first?
11. If it didn't seem like Dan was hurt very badly?
12. If you knew Robert would come after you next to get back – if you did something now?
13. If you did not like Robert at all?
14. If you weren't alone when you saw this but actually had two other coworkers with you who saw it as well?
15. If you believed Dan did not deserve to be criticized and called names?
16. If you believed that intervening would not involve much of your time and energy?
17. If you were pretty sure this happened a lot and would most likely happen again?
18. If Robert was well-liked and had lots of power?
19. If you believed Dan deserved what he got (e.g., Dan acted in a way that lead Robert to criticize Dan and call Dan names)?
20. If you believed that intervening would involve a lot of your time and energy?
21. Have you ever been in a similar situation? (No, yes – once or twice, yes – a few times, yes – many times)
 - a. If so, did you intervene? (Yes, No)
 - b. If so, did you feel you were successful (e.g., the bullying behaviour stopped)? (Yes, No)
22. Do you think this is an instance of bullying/harassment? (Yes, Don't Know, No)

APPENDIX H Continued
Willingness to Intervene Measure
Version 2

Read the story below and answer the questions that follow. There are no right or wrong answers – the only thing that matters is your opinion.

Two of your coworkers, Anne and Janet are asked to join efforts on an important project. Anne and Janet equally divide the responsibilities. Although they have separate tasks, it is vital that Anne and Janet communicate with each other and share information in order to successfully complete the project. You notice whenever Anne needs Janet's assistance Janet is extremely willing to help. However, every time Janet asks Anne a question, Anne shrugs Janet off mumbling that she doesn't know what Janet is talking about. When presenting the final product to their manager, Janet gets blamed for not contributing as much to the project as Anne.

1. How serious (e.g., inappropriate, severe) do you think this situation is?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all serious
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat serious
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Very serious

The next set of questions ask you about “intervening”, which means trying to stop what is happening by going to get help or maybe do doing something or saying something to Anne or Janet.

2. How likely do you think you would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – I would definitely NOT intervene
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Maybe – I might or I might not intervene
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – I would definitely intervene
3. How difficult do you think it would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all hard
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat hard
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Really hard

Please respond to the next set of questions on a 5-point response scale where:

1 = I would definitely NOT intervene
3 = Maybe - I might or I might not intervene
5 = I would definitely intervene

How likely would you be to intervene...(choose one answer only)

4. If you were the only one who saw what happened and you knew no one else was around to do anything?
5. If you thought this was a one-time thing that would likely never happen again?
6. If Janet was a good friend of yours?
7. If you did not like Janet at all?
8. If it seemed like Janet was being hurt badly by this?
9. If Anne was a good friend of yours?
10. If you saw someone else step in and do something first?
11. If it didn't seem like Janet was hurt very badly?
12. If you knew Anne would come after you next to get back – if you did something now?
13. If you did not like Anne at all?
14. If you weren't alone when you saw this but actually had two other coworkers with you who saw it as well?
15. If you believed Janet did not deserve to be ignored by Anne?
16. If you believed that intervening would not involve much of your time and energy?
17. If you were pretty sure this happened a lot and would most likely happen again?
18. If Anne was well-liked and had lots of power?
19. If you believed Janet deserved what she got (e.g., Janet acted in a way that lead Anne to ignore Janet)?
20. If you believed that intervening would involve a lot of your time and energy?
21. Have you ever been in a similar situation? (No, yes – once or twice, yes – a few times, yes – many times)
 - a. If so, did you intervene? (Yes, No)
 - b. If so, did you feel you were successful (e.g., the bullying behaviour stopped)? (Yes, No)
22. Do you think this is an instance of bullying/harassment? (Yes, Don't Know, No)

APPENDIX H Continued
Willingness to Intervene Measure
Version 3

Read the story below and answer the questions that follow. There are no right or wrong answers – the only thing that matters is your opinion.

You are taking a coffee break when you overhear Kate and Lorri whispering to each other about how much they can't stand Samantha. Samantha is sitting at her desk/table while Kate and Lorri send her nasty looks and then break out into laughter. Samantha enters the coffee room and says hi to Kate and Lorri. Kate and Lorri quickly look away and do not acknowledge Samantha's presence.

1. How serious (e.g., inappropriate, severe) do you think this situation is?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all serious
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat serious
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Very serious

The next set of questions ask you about “intervening”, which means trying to stop what is happening by going to get help or maybe do doing something or saying something to Kate, Lorri or Samantha.

2. How likely do you think you would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – I would definitely NOT intervene
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Maybe – I might or I might not intervene
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – I would definitely intervene
3. How difficult do you think it would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all hard
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat hard
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Really hard

Please respond to the next set of questions on a 5-point response scale where:

1 = I would definitely NOT intervene
3 = Maybe - I might or I might not intervene
5 = I would definitely intervene

How likely would you be to intervene...(choose one answer only)

4. If you were the only one who saw what happened and you knew no one else was around to do anything?
5. If you thought this was a one-time thing that would likely never happen again?
6. If Samantha was a good friend of yours?
7. If you did not like Samantha at all?
8. If it seemed like Samantha was being hurt badly by this?
9. If Kate and/or Lorri were good friends of yours?
10. If you saw someone else step in and do something first?
11. If it didn't seem like Samantha was hurt very badly?
12. If you knew Kate and/or Lorri would come after you next to get back – if you did something now?
13. If you did not like Kate and/or Lorri at all?
14. If you weren't alone when you saw this but actually had two other coworkers with you who saw it as well?
15. If you believed Samantha did not deserve to be talked about/given nasty looks by Kate and Lorri?
16. If you believed that intervening would not involve much of your time and energy?
17. If you were pretty sure this happened a lot and would most likely happen again?
18. If Kate and Lorri were well-liked and had lots of power?
19. If you believed Samantha deserved what she got (e.g., Samantha acted in a way that lead Kate and Lorri to talk about her and give her nasty looks)?
20. If you believed that intervening would involve a lot of your time and energy?
21. Have you ever been in a similar situation? (No, yes – once or twice, yes – a few times, yes – many times)
 - a. If so, did you intervene? (Yes, No)
 - b. If so, did you feel you were successful (e.g., the bullying behaviour stopped)? (Yes, No)
22. Do you think this is an instance of bullying/harassment? (Yes, Don't Know, No)

APPENDIX H Continued
Willingness to Intervene Measure
Version 4

Read the story below and answer the questions that follow. There are no right or wrong answers – the only thing that matters is your opinion.

Your manager, Sam, calls an unscheduled meeting. Everyone attends except Trevor, a fellow employee, who is at home taking care of his son who has the flu. Sam notices Trevor's absence during the meeting. Following the meeting Sam makes a remark that Trevor's children are always sick, probably because Trevor and his wife neglect to provide their children with proper care. Sam even goes so far as to suggest Trevor would rather drink at the local pub than take care of his sick children.

1. How serious (e.g., inappropriate, severe) do you think this situation is?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all serious
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat serious
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Very serious

The next set of questions ask you about “intervening”, which means trying to stop what is happening by going to get help or maybe do doing something or saying something to Sam or Trevor.

2. How likely do you think you would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – I would definitely NOT intervene
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Maybe – I might or I might not intervene
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – I would definitely intervene
3. How difficult do you think it would be to intervene in this situation?
 - ☐ 1 – Not at all hard
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3 – Somewhat hard
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 – Really hard

Please respond to the next set of questions on a 5-point response scale where:

1 = I would definitely NOT intervene
3 = Maybe - I might or I might not intervene
5 = I would definitely intervene

How likely would you be to intervene...(choose one answer only)

4. If you were the only one who saw what happened and you knew no one else was around to do anything?
5. If you thought this was a one-time thing that would likely never happen again?
6. If Trevor was a good friend of yours?
7. If you did not like Trevor at all?
8. If it seemed like Trevor was being hurt badly by this?
9. If Sam was a good friends of yours?
10. If you saw someone else step in and do something first?
11. If it didn't seem like Trevor was hurt very badly?
12. If you knew Sam would come after you next to get back – if you did something now?
13. If you did not like Sam at all?
14. If you weren't alone when you saw this but actually had two other coworkers with you who saw it as well?
15. If you believed Trevor did not deserve to be gossiped about by Sam?
16. If you believed that intervening would not involve much of your time and energy?
17. If you were pretty sure this happened a lot and would most likely happen again?
18. If Sam was well-liked and had lots of power?
19. If you believed Trevor deserved what he got (e.g., Trevor acted in a way that lead Sam to gossip about Trevor)?
20. If you believed that intervening would involve a lot of your time and energy?
21. Have you ever been in a similar situation? (No, yes – once or twice, yes – a few times, yes – many times)
 - a. If so, did you intervene? (Yes, No)
 - b. If so, did you feel you were successful (e.g., the bullying behaviour stopped)? (Yes, No)
22. Do you think this is an instance of bullying/harassment? (Yes, Don't Know, No)

APPENDIX I
Main Reasons and Barriers to Intervening

1. Please identify the main reasons or conditions under which you would decide to intervene when someone is being aggressive or manipulative in your workplace?
2. Please identify any barriers to intervening in aggressive or manipulative situations.

APPENDIX J

Consent Form

Aggression and Manipulation in the Workplace

To date, little empirical work regarding aggression and manipulation in the workplace has been done in Canada; thus, a more extensive look at this topic in the Canadian context is needed. The purpose of the current study is to examine whether there are certain contexts that promote versus inhibit aggression and manipulation in the workplace. In addition, the research will examine coworkers' experiences with aggression/manipulation, focusing on certain factors associated with a willingness on the part of coworkers to intervene when a colleague is experiencing aggression/manipulation (e.g., fear of retribution, liking/disliking the perpetrator). The study will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Your answers to this survey will be anonymous. Only the researchers will have access to the data, and no one will be able to identify you on the basis of your answers. All responses to the survey questions will be combined so that the answer of any one individual cannot be determined. Completion of the survey means that you are giving permission to include your answers in the combined data set, which will be analyzed and may be presented in future journal articles and conference presentations. If you withdraw from the research project before you have completed the survey, any data that you have contributed will be destroyed at your request. However, completing the survey implies consent. That is, after you have completed the survey, you can no longer withdraw your data.

There are no right or wrong answers, so please feel comfortable in giving your true opinions. Although you may experience an emotional reaction as a result of participating in the current study, we do not believe these questions will bring you any harm. However, you are free to decide at any time to not complete the survey, or to not answer any specific question that makes you uncomfortable. If you have questions or concerns about your workplace please feel free to contact Dr. Carole Pond, Coordinator, Discrimination and Harassment Prevention Services. She would be happy to provide you with information or discuss your concerns in confidence and can be contacted via email (carole.pond@usask.ca) or phone (306-966-4936).

For your participation, you will have the opportunity to enter into a prize draw. Prizes include a \$100 gift certificate to McNally Robinson, two \$50 gift certificates to the U of S bookstore, and five \$10 gift certificates to Tim Hortons. To ensure that there is no identifying information collected with responses, if you wish to be entered into the prize draw please email Carli Haffner at carli.haffner@usask.ca after you have completed the study. It should be noted that your right to withdraw from the survey at any time will not impact your eligibility to enter into the prize draw.

If you have any questions concerning the study, please feel free to contact Carli Haffner by email at carli.haffner@usask.ca. This study has been approved on ethical grounds by

the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect. You may request a summary of the findings when the study has been completed by emailing carli.haffner@usask.ca.

You are encouraged to print off this consent form for you own record.

APPENDIX K

Debriefing Information

Thank you so much for participating.

We greatly appreciate you sharing your personal experiences, beliefs and attitudes about workplace aggression and manipulation. If you have questions or concerns about your workplace please feel free to contact Dr. Carole Pond, Coordinator, Discrimination and Harassment Prevention Services. She would be happy to provide you with information or discuss your concerns in confidence and can be contacted via email (carole.pond@usask.ca) or phone (306-966-4936). If you have any questions concerning this study or the results, please feel free to contact Carli Haffner by email at carli.haffner@usask.ca.

You have the opportunity to enter a prize draw. Prizes include a \$100 gift certificate to McNally Robinson, two \$50 gift certificates to the U of S bookstore, and five \$10 gift certificates to Tim Hortons. To enter the draw, please email carli.haffner@usask.ca. We ask that you e-mail us separately to be in the draw so that we can ensure your name and personal information is kept separate from your survey responses.

Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

APPENDIX L
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L1

Role X Gender Repeated Measures ANOVA (DV= prevalence of bullying)

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	1.67		.20
S within-group error	117	(1.00)		
Within subjects				
Role (R) X G	1	3.10	.026	.08
R X S within-group error	117	(.19)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L2

Role X Type of Employment Repeated Measures ANOVA (DV= prevalence of bullying)

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Type of				
Employment (T)	2	.003		.10
S within-group	101	(.97)		
error				
Within subjects				
Role (R) X T	2	.26	.005	.77
R X S within-group	101	(.20)		
error				

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L3

Gender X Scenario Repeated Measures ANOVA (DV=general willingness to intervene)

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.31		.58
S within-group error	110	(2.37)		
Within subjects				
Scenario (S)	3	.63	.017	.60
S X G	3	.22	.006	.89
S X S within-group error	330	(1.51)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L4

Gender X Scenario Repeated Measures ANOVA (DV=perceived difficulty of situation)

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Within subjects				
Scenario (S) X				
Gender (G)	3	.32	.009	.81
S X S within-group				
error	324	(.90)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L5

Gender X Scenario Repeated Measures ANOVA (DV=perceived seriousness of situation)

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Within subjects				
Scenario (S) X				
Gender (G)	3	.49	.013	.69
S X S within-group				
error	330	(.65)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L6

Links between General Willingness, Seriousness and Difficulty

Scale	1	2	3
Participants ($n = 120$)			
<u>Scenario 1</u>			
1. General Willingness		.10	.01
2. Perceived Seriousness			.07
3. Perceived Difficulty			
<u>Scenario 2</u>			
1. General Willingness		.08	.05
2. Perceived Seriousness			.29**
3. Perceived Difficulty			
<u>Scenario 3</u>			
1. General Willingness		-.08	-.01
2. Perceived Seriousness			.16
3. Perceived Difficulty			
<u>Scenario 4</u>			
1. General Willingness		-.04	.16
2. Perceived Seriousness			-.12
3. Perceived Difficulty			

Note. ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed); degrees of freedom range from 110 to 118.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L7

Links between General Willingness to Intervene and Negative Work Environments

Scale	General Willingness to Intervene
Participants ($n = 120$)	
<u>Scenario 1</u>	
1. Injunctive Norms	-.08
2. Competition	.09
3. Role Overload	-.11
4. Role Ambiguity	-.02
5. Fear	-.10
6. Descriptive Norms	-.14
<u>Scenario 2</u>	
1. Injunctive Norms	.10
2. Competition	.05
3. Role Overload	-.04
4. Role Ambiguity	.06
5. Fear	.18
6. Descriptive Norms	.17
<u>Scenario 3</u>	
1. Injunctive Norms	.20
2. Competition	-.04

3. Role Overload	-.07
4. Role Ambiguity	-.07
5. Fear	.06
6. Descriptive Norms	.11

Scenario 4

1. Injunctive Norms	.02
2. Competition	.09
3. Role Overload	-.05
4. Role Ambiguity	-.03
5. Fear	-.04
6. Descriptive Norms	.03

*Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed); degrees of freedom range from 110 to 118.*

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L8

Links between General Willingness to Intervene and Prevalence of Bullying Behaviour

Scale	Experienced Bullying	Witnessed Bullying
Participants ($n = 120$)		
General Willingness (Scenario 1)	-.09	-.03
General Willingness (Scenario 2)	.19*	.16
General Willingness (Scenario 3)	.06	.05
General Willingness (Scenario 4)	-.02	-.02

*Note. * $p < .05$ (two-tailed); degrees of freedom range from 111 to 118.*

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L9

Gender X Contrast (frequency of event) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.01		.92
S within-group error	106	(4.32)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	1.6	.12	.21
S X G	3	.47	.01	.71
C X S X G	3	.40	.01	.75
C X S within-group error	106	(1.23)		
S X S within-group error	318	(1.11)		
C X S X S within-group error	318	(.35)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L10

Gender X Contrast (seriousness of situation) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.42		.52
S within-group error	107	(3.37)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.01	.00	.93
S	3	1.33	.04	.27
S X G	3	.24	.01	.87
C X S X G	3	.64	.02	.59
C X S within-group error	107	(.88)		
S X S within-group error	321	(.95)		
C X S X S within-group error	321	(.26)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L11

Gender X Contrast (relation to bully) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.38		.54
S within-group error	107	(3.64)		
Within subjects				
C	1	.40	.00	.53
C X G	1	.97	.01	.33
S	3	.88	.02	.46
S X G	3	.92	.03	.44
C X S X G	3	.53	.02	.66
C X S within-group error	107	(1.03)		
S X S within-group error	321	(.99)		
C X S X S within-group error	321	(.32)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L12

Gender X Contrast (relation to victim) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.14		.71
S within-group				
error	109	(3.74)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.84	.01	.36
S X G	3	.41	.01	.75
C X S	3	2.16	.06	.10
C X S X G	3	.46	.01	.71
C X S within-group				
error	109	(1.17)		
S X S within-group				
error	327	(.98)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	327	(.27)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L13

Gender X Contrast (another bystander reacts to situation) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.55		.46
S within-group				
error	108	(2.26)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.02	.00	.89
S	3	.09	.00	.97
S X G	3	.72	.02	.54
C X S	3	1.91	.05	.13
C X S X G	3	.24	.01	.87
C X S within-group				
error	108	(2.76)		
S X S within-group				
error	324	(1.13)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	324	(1.13)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L14

Gender X Contrast (fear of retribution) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.76		.39
S within-group				
error	109	(2.42)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	1.96	.02	.17
S	3	1.47	.04	.23
S X G	3	.04	.00	.99
C X S	3	1.41	.04	.24
C X S X G	3	.59	.02	.62
C X S within-group				
error	109	(3.43)		
S X S within-group				
error	327	(1.10)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	327	(1.12)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L15

Gender X Contrast (was victim deserving?) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.42		.52
S within-group				
error	104	(3.37)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.29	.00	.59
S	3	1.82	.05	.15
S X G	3	.29	.01	.83
C X S	3	2.45	.07	.07
C X S X G	3	1.48	.04	.22
C X S within-group				
error	104	(1.41)		
S X S within-group				
error	312	(.93)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	312	(.26)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L16

Gender X Contrast (status of bully) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.02		.89
S within-group				
error	108	(2.69)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.83	.01	.36
S	3	.48	.01	.70
S X G	3	.08	.00	.97
C X S	3	.87	.02	.46
C X S X G	3	.33	.01	.80
C X S within-group				
error	108	(3.20)		
S X S within-group				
error	324	(.99)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	324	(1.07)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L17

Gender X Contrast (cost of intervening) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.01		.94
S within-group				
error	103	(4.10)		
Within subjects				
C X G	1	.82	.01	.37
S	3	2.55	.07	.06
S X G	3	.94	.03	.42
C X S	3	1.99	.06	.12
C X S X G	3	.29	.01	.83
C X S within-group				
error	103	(.95)		
S X S within-group				
error	309	(.83)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	309	(.14)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L18

Gender X Contrast (number of witnesses) Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Pillai's</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects				
Gender (G)	1	.05		.83
S within-group				
error	107	(4.13)		
Within subjects				
C	1	2.20	.02	.14
C X G	1	.03	.00	.87
S	3	1.68	.05	.18
S X G	3	.18	.01	.91
C X S	3	1.0	.03	.40
C X S X G	3	.93	.03	.43
C X S within-group				
error	107	(.64)		
S X S within-group				
error	321	(.98)		
C X S X S within-group				
error	321	(.21)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects.

APPENDIX L Continued
Non-Significant Source Tables

Table L19

Links between Past Experience and General Willingness to Intervene

	Past Experience	Success
Participants ($n = 120$)		
General Willingness (Scenario 1)	-.14	.14
General Willingness (Scenario 2)	-.29	.23
General Willingness (Scenario 3)	-.04	-.04
General Willingness (Scenario 4)	.10	-.10

Note. * $p < .05$ (two-tailed); degrees of freedom range from 28 to 54.